DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 268 803 FL 015 621

AUTHOR	Tonkin, Humphrey, Ed.; Johnson-Weiner, Karen, Ed.
TITLE	Language Planning at the International Level. Report of the Annual Conference of the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems (3rd, New York, New York, December 14, 1984).
INSTITUTION	Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems, New York, NY.
REPORT NO	ISBN-0-934973-03-2
PUB DATE	85
NOTE	130p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems, 777 United Nations Plaza, New York, NY 10017 ($10.00).
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141) -- Viewpoints (120) -- Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Administrative Policy; Conferences; Foreign Countries; *International Cooperation; *International Organizations; International Trade Vocabulary; *Language Planning; Machine Translation; Multilingualism; Policy Formation; Second Language Instruction; Sign Language; *Translation
IDENTIFIERS	European Community; United Nations

ABSTRACT

The proceedings of the conference include the opening address (Francoise Cestac) and these papers: "False Friendship in International Language Planning" (Joseph L. Malone); "Guidelines for Terminology Standardization at the United Nations" (Marie-Josee Jastrab); "Language Policy at the Agence de Cooperation Culturelle et Technique" (Jean-Claude Corbeil); "Language Training in the Context of Language Planning in International Organizations" (Youssef Mahmoud); "Language Planning, Planned Languages and International Organizations" (Humphrey Tonkin); "Preserving Multilingualism in the European Community" (Brian Moon); "The Efficient Planning of Conference Interpretation" (Bruce Boeglin); "Simultaneous Sign Language Interpretation" (Roland Wesemael); "Language Planning and the Automatic Translation System DLT" (Alex Olde-Kalter); "Intermediate Language in Multi-Language Simulations" (Amri Wandel); and "Planned Language Services in International Business" (Eva Berry). Appended materials include a description of the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems, lists of future conferences, and current conference participants. (MSE)

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LANGUAGE PLANNING AT THE INTERNATIONAL LEVEL

Report of the Third Annual Conference

of the

Center for Research and Documentation

on World Language Problems

New York, December 14, 1984

Edited by

Humphrey Tonkin

and

Karen Johnson-Weiner

Center for Research and Documentation on World language Problems
New York 1985

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ISBN 0-934973-03-2

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INTRODUCTION

The Conference, organized by the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems, was chaired by Françoise Cestac, director of the Translation Division of the United Nations, who opened the day's proceedings with some brief comments on language planning and on the distribution and organization of languages at the United Nations. The first session, chaired by Professor Maureen Regan (State University College, Potsdam, New York), consisted of five papers. Joseph L. Malone, chairman of the Department of Linguistics at Barnard College, presented a paper on "False Friendships in International Language Planning," a discussion of the pitfalls facing the translator because of lack of correspondence in semantic fields across languages. Marie-Josée Jastrab's paper concerned "Standardization of United Nations Terminology." As a terminologist in the United Nations Secretariat, she provided an insider's view of the context of standardization and the procedures employed by the United Nations to achieve uniformity of usage within individual languages and to establish and apply stylistic conventions. At the United Nations, no attempt has been made (she pointed out) to standardize terminology over the six working languages. Efforts have been concentrated primarily on intralanguage rather than interlanguage consistency.

"La politique linguistique d'un organisme de coopération internationale" was the topic of the paper presented by Jean-Claude Corbeil, secretary of the Conseil international de recherche et d'étude en linguistique fondamentale et appliquée, in Montreal. His paper concerned ACCT, l'Agence de coopération culturelle et technique, an organization spanning the countries of the world where French is the dominant influence or an influence of importance (varying from France or Belgium, where French is the official language and the mother tongue of a large part of the population, through Haiti or Ivory Coast, where the language is official, to Egypt, where the influence of French remains strong). ACCT is devoted to the promotion of international cooperation in education, science, and technology.

Youssef Mahmoud, in his contribution, discussed the Language Training Program of the United Nations, with which he is associated, considering particularly "the impact some language planning policies have had on language training in the secretariat both at the design and implementation levels." He emphasized the fact that language training takes place at the United Nations within a political context and that, as the UN Charter states, the organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of nations. There is of course more to language training than formal instruction and the maintenance of listening and reading skills. While the Language Training Program has had a positive effect on communicative competence, there is still a long way to go. Mahmoud's paper was supplemented by that of Pierre Pelanne, who discussed "Planning of Recruitment of Staff Requiring Special Language Competence in International

Organizations," concentrating on the United Nations, of which organization he is also a staff member.

The second session, chaired by Julius Manson, of Baruch College of the City University of New York, opened with a paper on "Language Planning, Planned Languages and International Organizations" by Humphrey Tonkin, president of Potsdam College of the State University of New York and chairman of the Board of the Center for Research and Documentation. Dr. Tonkin provided a brief history of the growth of multilingualism in international organizations and turned to examine the particular situation of Esperanto, describing procedures that might be employed for its more extensive use at the United Nations. His paper was followed by that of Adnan Yusuf, chief of the Arabic Service of the UN Translation Division, who spoke on "Creation and Development of the Arabic Language Service at the United Nations." Yusuf examined the "problems of a newly introduced language" from a linguistic and terminological point of view. While Arabic terminology is well established in administration, law, politics, culture, and the social sciences, it is less developed in medicine and technology, and even in the former fields there is something of a lack of standardization. Hence the language services at the UN are not only a service agency but also a "language academy" under "pressure-cooker circumstances," because UN rules on language equality require the simultaneous publication of all major documents in all UN languages. Some twenty-two member states are served by Yusuf's office.

"Preserving Multilingualism in the European Community" was the topic of Brian Moon, reviser in the English Translation Division of the Commission of the European Communities, Luxembourg. Moon pointed out that enlargement of the European Community means enlargement of language numbers and that currently the Community's language costs are higher than those of any other international organization. He provided a brief history of language use in the European Coal and Steel Community and its successors, and went on to describe the day-to-day running of the European Community, in which many activities are confined, for convenience, to English, French, and German. Such limitations on language use also result from pressures to reduce costs as the Community has gone from four to seven working languages. There is also active interest in the use of technology to reduce language costs.

Returning to the United Nations, Bruce Boeglin, training officer with the Interpretation Service of the UN, presented a practical introduction to "The Efficient Planning of Conference Interpretation," in which he described the organization of interpreting services, the selection of conference languages, recruitment and preparation of interpreters, and postconference follow-up. His paper formed a pair with that of Eva Berry, president of the American Translators Association and of the translation service IBTI, Inc., who spoke on "Planning Language Services in International Business." American business encounters many problems in working abroad, caused both by lack of language knowledge and by unawareness of customs and traditions in other countries. The business world must become more familiar with what is involved in translation and interpretation and more conscious of the need for language services and also of the capabilities and limitations of such services.

Berry's paper was one of four in the final session of the conference. This session began with a paper by Roland Wesemaël, director general of Special Translation Operations for the Department of the Secretary of State, Canada. Wesemaël's contribution, entitled "Simultaneous Sign Language Interpretation," described the establishment and operation of sign language services for the Canadian government. His presentation was followed by Alex Olde Kalter's "Language Planning and the Automatic Translation System DLT." Olde Kalter, of the Dutch software house BSO, described a project, Distributed Language Translation, currently going forward with funding from the European Community and the government of the Netherlands. This project, which is concentrating initially on translation from English to French, uses a modified form of Esperanto as its intermediate language.

Esperanto was also, in part, the subject of the paper of Amri Wandel, of the University of Maryland. His presentation, on "Intermediate Language in Multi-Language Simulations," described "Young Unispace/Simulated World 2001," a UN-related computer project for International Youth Year. The project aims to teach subjects such as international relations and economics by letting young people from different countries simulate governments and interstate relations. The project will use Esperanto as its communication language, encouraging trainees to self-study Esperanto for user-user communications, using a system facility.

In his closing remarks to the conference, Moon emphasized that everyone at the meeting was concerned, one way or another, with dealing with a steadily increasing information flow. Modern techniques are available to help us overcome language barriers--and also to resist the dominance of one language over another.

So concluded the Third Annual Conference on Language and Communication. The Fourth Conference will take place in New York on Friday and Saturday, December 13 and 14, 1985. It will have two topics: "Overcoming Language Barriers: The Human/Machine Relationship" (December 13) and "The Idea of a Universal Language" (December 14). The latter topic will form the first of three scholarly conferences related to the Centennial of the International Language Esperanto, the second to take place in Tokyo and the third in Paris, both in 1986 and both under the auspices of the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems.

The present report contains most of the papers presented at the 1984 conference. A complete program is presented elsewhere in this volume.

Humphrey Tonkin

THIRD ANNUAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION:
"Language Planning at the International Level"

New York 14 December 1984

Program

9:00 - 9:30 Registration. Coffee and doughnuts.

9:30 OPENING ADDRESS
Françoise Cestac (Director, Translation Division, United Nations)

9:45 - 12:00 FIRST SESSION

"False Friendships in International Language Planning"
Joseph L. Malone (Chairman, Department of Linguistics, Barnard College)

"Standardization of United Nations Terminology"
Marie-Josée Jastrab (Documentation and Terminology Section, United Nations)

"La Politique Linguistique d'un Organisme de Coopération Internationale: L'Agence de Coopération Culturelle et Technique (ACCT)."
Jean-Claude Corbeil (Secretary, Conseil international de recherche et d'etude en linguistique fondamentale et appliquée, Montréal)

"Language Training in the Context of Language Planning in International Organizations"
Youssef Mahmoud (Department of Administration, Finance and Management, United Nations)

"Planning of Recruitment of Staff Requiring Special Language Competence in International Organizations"
Pierre Pelanne (Department of Administration, Finance and Management, United Nations)

Chair: Maureen Regan (State University College, Potsdam)

12:00 - 1:00 Break for lunch.

1:00 - 3:15 SECOND SESSION

"Language Planning, Planned Languages and International Organizations"
Humphrey Tonkin (President, State University College, Potsdam)

"Creation and Development of the Arabic Language at the United Nations"
Adnan Yusuf (Chief, Arabic Service, Translation Division, United Nations)

"Preserving Multilingualism in the European Community"
Brian Moon (European Commission, Luxembourg)

"Efficient Planning of Conference Interpreting"
Bruce Boeglin (Training Officer, Interpretation Service, United Nations)

Chair: Julius Manson (Baruch College, City University of New York)

3:15 Break for coffee.

3:30 - 4:45 THIRD SESSION

"La Gestuelle Simultanée/Visual Language Interpretation"
Roland Wesemaël (Director General, Special Translation Operation, Secretary of State, Canada, Official Languages and Translation)

"Distributed Language Translation"
Alex Olde-Kalter (BSO, Utrecht, Netherlands)

"Language and Simulation Games"
Amri Wandel (Department of Physics and Astronomy, University of Maryland)

"Planning Language Services in International Business"
Eva Berry (President, American Translators Association)

Chair: Humphrey Tonkin (State University College, Potsdam)

4:45 CONCLUDING REMARKS
Brian Moon (European Commission, Luxembourg)

Françoise Cestac (Director, Translation Division, Department of Conference Services, United Nations)

OPENING ADDRESS

It is a privilege for the United Nations to have been asked for the third time to be associated with the program of conferences of the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems. The program began in 1982 with the topic "World Communications Year 1982: Language and Language Learning." In 1983 came "Language Behavior in International Organizations," and now the topic is "Language Planning at the International Level."

Looking back at 1982, I have read with great interest the paper presented at that time by Janet Byron, of Cleveland State University, entitled "An Overview of Language Planning Patterns in Socialist and Non-Socialist Countries of the Developing World." Professor Byron writes:

> Language planning is a form of social planning in which political, administrative and intellectual effort is brought to bear upon the solution to language problems.... Regardless of (its) origin, such planning always implies conscious choices among alternative possibilities for the future use of a community's linguistic resources.... Language planning activities are diverse, and within a given speech community they may evolve in stages. (pp. 51-22)

Language planning implies norm selection, which Professor Byron defines as "determination of the status of linguistic systems in a speech community," or, in the words of Juan Cobarrubias, "choosing a language or variety for specific purposes frequently associated with official status or national roles." This is similar, says Professor Byron "to what some researchers term language determination, i.e., decisions regarding functional distribution of a community's linguistic systems.... Official status of a language denotes recognition of the language by the governing authority of a nation, while national roles of a language pertain to the language's use as a medium of communication" (p. 52).

Furthermore, in Volume 7, number 2, of Language Problems and Language Planning, papers presented at a symposium on the economics of language planning, Timothy Reagan analyses the potential of the economics of language and its implications for language planning. The author states that language planning has become an increasingly significant component of national policy around the world and that the aims of language planning are primarily of semi-linguistic and extra-linguistic rather than linguistic nature.

Any institution that has to solve in advance language problems that arise in its daily work is involved in some kind of language planning. The United Nations is no exception to this rule since it has developed over the past forty years a number of policies with regard to language learning, teaching and testing, on the one hand, and translating, interpreting, editing, terminology tool making and drafting on the other, in the six official languages of most principal organs of the United Nations. Such policies have for the most part rarely been formulated in a cohesive manner, let alone assessed.

The question of whether there should be a single or two or more languages used in an international organization has always arisen. The defenders of linguistic pluralism contend that language diversity is a source of mutual enrichment and receptivity that leads to better communication and understanding among nations. Those who oppose this view generally stress the importance of a single language to facilitate communications and administration. The language policies of the six principal organs of the United Nations favor linguistic diversity. Six languages, Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish, are the official languages of the General Assembly, and its Main Committees and Sub-committees, the Security Council, and the Economic and Social Council, and are the working languages of the General Assembly and the Security Council. Five languages, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish, are the official languages of the Trusteeship Council. Four languages, Arabic, English, French and Spanish, are the working languages of the Economic and Social Council. Two languages, English and French, are the official languages of the International Court of Justice and the working languages of the Trusteeship Council and the Secretariat.

Any planning on UN conferences is governed by standard rules and procedures proposed by the Secretary General of the United Nations to the General Assembly. Governments and International Organizations are invited to submit their comments. The scheme is very strict from the definition of the Conference, such as Treaty-Making Conference, which is a conference convened for the purpose of negotiating and adopting the texts of one or more multilateral legal instruments to which states may become parties, the Convening Organ of a conference, which is the organ by or under whose authority the conference is convened, the Preparatory Organ of a Conference, which is the Committee established or other organs designated. There are preparatory stages, sessions of the preparatory organ, rules, officers, functions of this organ, national focal points, functions of the secretariat, documentation, conference sessions including the scheduling, consultations, site, date and duration, extension of the sessions, arrangements with a host state, participation of the conference and rules of procedures, subsidiary organs, and then the definition of languages used for the conference and its documentation (pre-session, in-session, post-session), the means of communication, interpretation, records and reports, summary records, sound recordings, Journal, to conclude with the report or final act of the conference, without forgetting accommodation, medical facilities, transportation, police protection, local personnel and financial arrangements.

At the level of decision making, five influential entities should be mentioned in this debate:

1) The principal organs of the United Nations, that is the diplomatic community at large. Delegates from 159 Member States draft, discuss and vote resolutions that determine the activities with which the United Nations is involved. Once resolutions are adopted, the terminology that they contain acquires official status and is from then on used as standard terminology. This is one of the main sources of United Nations language development and regulation.

2) The Translation Division, which produces manuals and terminology reference tools that are disseminated throughout the United Nations system, thus securing access to reliable terminology information not only at United Nations Headquarters in New York but also in regional offices in Europe, Asia, Latin America, Africa and the Middle East.

3) The Editorial Service, which prepares various standard-setting publications such as the Guide to Writing for the United Nations (1965 and 1983) and the United Nations Editorial Manual (1983).

4) The Administrative Management Service, which sets all nomenclature and titles relating to the structure of the United Nations Secretariat.

5) Various thesaurus-preparing bodies in the Secretariat, such as the Dag Hammarskjöld Library, which prepared the Thesaurus of the United Nations Bibliographic Information System (UNBIS). Thesauri are terminological control devices made of a controlled and dynamic vocabulary of semantically and generically related terms which covers a specific domain of knowledge, following the definition adopted by Unesco. The UNBIS thesaurus standardizes terms that will appear in the publications of the United Nations Library (e.g., indexes to United Nations documents).

With respect to language decision implementing, which concerns all the Secretariat with no exception, language decisions relating to United Nations practices and policies appear in the various language tools prepared by the Secretariat. Among them are orthography and grammatical guides such as the Memento alphabétique, translation tools such as the Lexique général, and terminology bulletins and word lists (which are either bilingual, trilingual or preferably sextilingual). Dissemination of language decisions also takes place through direct terminology and grammar queries directed to the Documentation, Reference and Terminology Section of the Translation Division. This service has built an impressive card file system of nearly one million entries in most official languages to answer the specific needs of all staff members. In this regard, one would want to emphasize that perfect familiarity with United Nations language standards comes only with time. In order to render a text in the various United Nations terminologies and styles that are appropriate for the vast range of document types that are submitted to or that originate from the United Nations, translators and interpreters undergo intensive training during their probationary years. Over such a relatively long induction period, they are taught where to find answers to their terminology and stylistic problems and to conform to the language standards and rules that appear in United Nations official documents and terminology reference tools. They learn for instance that any change that they may introduce, no matter how felicitous, has potential political repercussions that could be avoided by scrupulously following authoritative precedents.

In conclusion, one could claim that the Translation Division plays a significant role in terminology and language regulation. Such regulation does not conflict with the historical stability of the languages involved, since it primarily affects their lexical and stylistic components. The motivation for anyone to use standardized language is in my view twofold: first, one is only too painfully aware of the diplomatic and political

consequences that one's misuse of words could bring about; second, one cares to realize the aims of the United Nations for which the peaceful solution of conflicts is of paramount importance. Contributing to international peace and understanding by the peaceful solution of language conflicts is ultimately the main goal of language planning at the United Nations.

PAPERS FROM SESSION I

Joseph L. Malone (Barnard College and Columbia University)

FALSE FRIENDSHIP IN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE PLANNING

Abstract

It is the goal of this paper to demonstrate the potential danger in international language planning of incurring the translational fallacy known as false friendship, whereby similarity of form between source and target lexemes or constructions may erroneously convey commensurate similarity in meaning. Three type-cases are discussed, with Irish (Gaelic) examples:

[1] Similar terms in similar semantic hierarchies. E.g., billiún '1000x1000x1000' correctly translates British English billion, but is a false friend to American English billion '1000x1000.'

[2] Taxonomic conflation, whereby a term is polysemous between a generic and a hyponymic sense. E.g., fear labhartha 'spokesman' may ambiguously designate either a male specifically or an individual irrespective of sex generically, while duine labhartha 'spokesperson' is unambiguously generic.

[3] Partial overlap of semantic fields. E.g., duine dubh, analytically 'black person,' does not normally designate a person of Negro ethno-physical type, but rather a Caucasian with dark hair or dusky skin, while 'Negro' is conveyed by duine gorm, analytically 'blue person.'

Introduction

In a study entitled "False Friendship" published in 1982 in the Unesco-sponsored translation journal Babel, I attempted to uncover and codify a variety of pitfalls occasioned for the translator when source and target languages share apparent but spurious similarities between potential translation equivalents, the sort of linguistic pair that the eminent linguist and translator Eugene Nida has called "false friends" (Nida 1964:160). Thus, to cite a famous example, when the 19th century Italian astronomer Schiaparelli used the Italian word canali for newly discovered features of the Martian surface, the term was mistranslated into English by the false friend canals rather than the intended channels--a seemingly trivial linguistic lapse which on the contrary was to engender a virtual mythology which lives on in science fiction to this very day.

In this paper I want to extend the caveat against false friendship into the area of international language planning, a proposal to be construed as a special case of a general strategy to minimize occasions for miscommunication attributable to language-planning carried out without due consideration of other languages in the international paradigm.

By way of preliminary demonstration that false friendship may indeed creep into international affairs, consider the report in the NY Times of a dispute in Puerto Rico concerning the US Federal Government's plan to establish a wildlife sanctuary in the marine area called La Parguera. While the dispute undeniably involves several issues of substance, part of the difficulty reportedly stems from a fear on the part of local fishermen that if the area is designated a sanctuary, they will no longer be able to fish there. The false friendship angle will be clear when I quote from the Times article verbatim, itself quoting the words of Hilda Diaz, head of the Department of Natural Resources in the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico:

> Language is at the heart of the problem, Miss Diaz contends. She says fishermen believe they will be prohibited from practicing their trade because of the connotations of the English word sanctuary when translated into the Spanish sanctuario. 'In Spanish there is the connotation of something that is saintlike,' she said. 'You don't touch the thing. You adore them but you don't touch them. Unfortunately, we cannot change the name that comes from a Federal law.' (NY Times, 26 December 1983, p. A14)

Moving now to the core of the paper, we will consider three type-cases of potential false friendship in international language planning, and make suggestions for avoiding them. For consistency and convenience, main illustration will all be from Irish (Gaelic). The examples are real, and though the language-planning situations are in part hypothetical, I have endeavored to make them wholly realistic.

First type-case

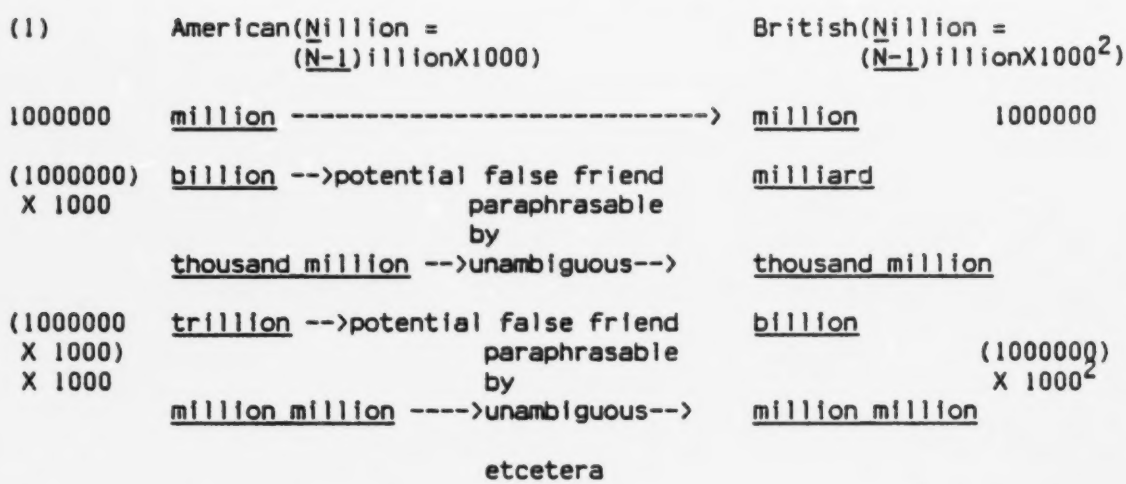
As was discussed in my Babel paper, the occasion for false friendship is enhanced when the mismatching source and target items are similar terms in similar semantic hierarchies--a caveat which has special importance in international planning, since both the structural and the semantic conditions for the problem tend to be present in linguistic metrological systems, that is, lexical subsystems used in counting, measuring, weighing, and the like.

An illustration may be provided from the Irish counting system. This system patterns like British English (and German) in productively defining numerals built on the cognate of the morphological base -illion as 1000^2 times the immediate predecessor in the same series, in contradistinction to the American English (and French) system of defining such numerals as 1000 times the predecessor. Thus Irish billiún means milliún times 1000^2, which in British English is billion, but in American English trillion.

Accordingly, deployment of the Irish series billiún, trilliún, etc. bids fair to incur systematic false friendship with areal languages of the American/French type, a fact which Irish language planners should at the very least recognize, and perhaps best plan to eschew.

As it turns out, a rather simple and straightforward solution to a case of this sort comes readily to mind, and has in fact already been precedented. The strategy in question depends crucially on the general flexibility and paraphrasability of well developed counting systems, a flexibility that allows one to field cognitively synonymous numerical expressions ad libitum: thus one thousand means the same thing as ten hundred, which in turn amounts to the same as twenty times fifty, or any other of a virtually endless inventory of synonymous paraphrases.

So the suggested strategy is simply for language planners faced with a possible deadlock of the billion/trillion type, to adopt paraphrases which escape both horns of the dilemma. As mentioned, this simple expedient has already been used to good effect. For example, the astute editors of The NY Times Atlas in Collaboration with the Times of London (Times Books, London, 1978), revealed by its very title to be the product of international cooperation, have tacitly sidestepped possible false friendship for either American or British readers by consistent paraphrases such as "the Milky Way ... is only one of many thousands of millions of galaxies..." (p.6); see diagram (1). It may readily be seen that, had a home-bound American editor, for example, worded this as "...one of many billions of galaxies...", an unexpecting British reader would likely overestimate the number of star systems as a thousand times higher.<1>



Second type-case

A special occasion for false friendship is incurred when the term to be translated is, on the source side, a polyseme, that is, when it has two or more distinct but related senses. The danger for false friendship here is simply that of translating the wrong sense. An incidental example has already been provided, with the false-friendly trajection (Malone 1981) of Italian canale into English canal, since the Italian word canale is in fact a polyseme conveying either the sense 'channel' or the sense 'canal.' The false friendship consisted in translating as per the latter, while the source author Schiaparelli had intended the former.

In turn, a special case of polysemy is given by taxonomic conflation, that is, when a lexeme has both a generic sense and one or more hyponymic senses included within that generic sense. Thus Irish, unlike standard English but like many other languages, evidences conflative polysemy in having one word, bean, with both the generic sense of 'woman' and the hyponymic sense of 'wife.' And false friendship would be incurred were bean to be translated into English as wife in a context where rather the sense 'woman' was intended, or vice versa.<2>

With this background of concepts, it may be seen that a major source of social tension and bad feelings, often transnational in scope, is caused by the fact that many languages evidence sex-based gender conflation, whereby one and the same term may convey either the hyponymic sense of 'masculine' (as opposed to 'feminine'), or the generic sense of 'common' or 'epicene', gender (with reference to masculine or feminine designata irrespective of sex) (Malone 1979b). This sort of conflation, which is extremely widespread within at least the Indo-European and Semitic languages, may be manifested wither lexically or grammatically. English examples of both types may be seen in a sentence like Each spokesman is requested to present his credentials, which on a generic reading would convey the request to individuals irrespective of their sex, but on a hyponymic reading would be addressed exclusively to males and so have nothing whatever to say to any spokeswoman about her credentials.

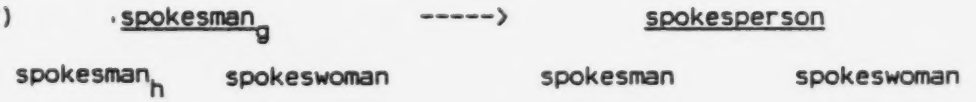
Gender conflation of this sort has of course been targeted in recent years by feminists all over the globe as obnoxious and potentially dangerous (see e.g., McKay 1980). Moreover, proposals are increasingly being implemented to redeploy or even revamp languages' resources to reduce or abolish gender conflation. Thus, for the case in point, the conflative lexeme spokesman may be neutralized if sufficient societal consensus can be achieved to replace the term in its generic sense by an unambiguous non-conflative lexeme like spokesperson. And similarly for the conflative pronoun his vis-à-vis the prospect of replacing it in the generic sense by the non-conflative plural pronoun their; or by tacitly changing generic his to hyponymic by addition of the opposing hyponym her, resulting in the periphrase his or her. Thus Spokespersons are requested to present their credentials, or Each spokesperson is requested to present his or her credentials--gender-neutralized revisions which neither discriminate nor offend.

Now the direction of this discussion of conflative polysemy for international language planning may be easily guessed. To the extent that it is agreed that gender conflation within the international paradigm should be minimized, a language planning to enter that paradigm and yet evincing such conflation risks incurring false friendship by virtue of the conflict between its own generic-hyponymic ambiguities and the (ideally) unambiguous resources of the international standard.

To be sure, planning languages will differ considerably apriori in structural and lexical facility toward deconflation. In the specific case of Irish, the task clearly should be aided by the fact that the language already has a number of key non-conflative generic lexemes, which moreover are already standard and enter productively into novel combinations. Foremost among these is perhaps duine, a sex-neutral generic over 'man' and 'woman' with a totally plaintalk ring which has been in the language since the beginning. Thus in Irish the expression duine labhartha has none of the neologistic aura of English spokesperson.

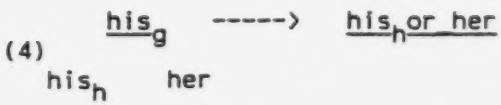
The specific strategy for deconflation must of course depend on the specific planning language. But the English examples given earlier instantiate three restructurings of quite general and frequent import: substitution of the conflative generic by a non-conflative semantic equivalent (diagram (2)), or by a non-conflative (semantically distinct but) pragmatic equivalent (diagram (3)); or finally, amplification with the opposed hyponym(s), inducing a switch of the offending conflative generic to hyponymic status (diagram (4)).

(2)



(3)

(4)



Third type-case

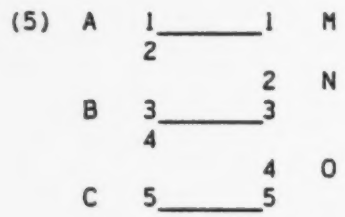
In a general way, the danger of false friendship can be expected to arise whenever source and target languages evidence partially but not totally overlapping semantic fields with respect to a given meaning-substance. In turn, certain areas of meaning are likely to manifest relatively wide semantic field discrepancies across languages. One likely such area might be called the physical-emblematic portmanteau type; that is, a domain of meaning whose designata are partially defined by physical characteristics and partially by cultural-symbolic attributes.<3> A preeminent instance of portmanteau meaning in this sense is a language's color lexicon. A classical example in the ethnolinguistic literature is provided by Harold Conklin's analysis of color terms in the Philippine language Hanunoo as being based not merely on objective-physical colorimetric properties, but equally on cultural-evaluative attributions of desiccation or moistness (Conklin 1955). An example of a rather different type may be seen when colors are attributed as emblematic values to certain non-colorimetric designata. Thus in both Classical Chinese poetry and in the traditional religion of the American Indian Crow people, the points of the compass are invested with specific color values. To the Crow, for example, the east is yellow and the south is green (Chilcote 1981); while in Classical Chinese verse, the south was portrayed as crimson, and the east as dark blue (Kroll 1984).

The psychological and emotional import of emblematic color attribution may rightly be expected to increase as the sphere of reference becomes more intimately associated with human interests. Thus, in a referential sphere as important and sensitive as human racial and physical characteristics, there will be an apriori premium on inter-language concord with respect to extension of colorimetrically based terminology to designate various groups of humankind. With this in mind, it will readily be appreciated how inter-language discrepancy may not only incur false friendship in the linguistic sense, but might even lead to needlessly bad international feelings and misunderstandings as well.

Coming now to the specific case of Irish, it is noteworthy that this language's deployment of color terminology in reference to human physical characteristics is at various points out of whack with mainstream European usage. Thus persons of the physical-demographic type designated in most European languages by the family of translation-equivalents black=noir=negro=черный, are in Irish normally designated by the term gorm, whose unmarked colorimetric value however places it in the family blue=bleu=azul=синий. And in counterpoint to this, dubh, the colorimetrically unmarked term of the black-series, in human-phyiscal reference designates rather hair color or degree of melanin in Caucasian skin; for instance, fear dubh, analytically 'man black,' is referentially 'black-haired man' or '(white)man with dark complexion.'<4>

However, there is some evidence of very recent encroachment of dubh into the domain of gorm to designate persons of Negro type. This novel usage may very well bespeak growing sensitivity of Irish language-planners to subtle international pressure for uniformity (and solidarity) in ethnic designations.

When it comes to general strategies for the planning language faced with possible discrepancies similar to those just discussed, the task should on no account be broached item by item. Rather, it will be important to systematically match the semantic fields of the lexical resources in the planning language against those of at least a representative sample from the international paradigm. One way of proceeding with this is suggested in diagram (5), where letters stand for lexemes and numbers for senses. If ABC are a sample from the planning language's lexicon and MNO from that of the comparison language from the international paradigm, the solid lines will represent relatively facile cases for translation, in that the lexeme-sense distribution is one-to-one across the languages. The dotted lines, on the other hand, signal special potential for false friendship, since the senses in question are split in cross-language lexical assignment.



To the extent that the planners may succeed in reducing at least part of their task to lexical-sense displays like that sketched in diagram (5), so much the better. but of course the planners cannot actually delegate their work to displays and diagrams, no matter how comprehensive and sophisticated. The ultimate decision as to which terms should be launched, and with what semantic functions, must remain a human decision, with all the risk that goes with it. To return to the Irish case, one possible catch in recommending that dubh 'black' replace gorm 'blue' in the international paradigm for human racial designation, is that dubh has a number of established negative senses--Dinneen's dictionary lists 'blighted, rotten, bad; dark, dim; sad, severe, morose; bigoted, malevolent.' The adjective gorm on the other hand, however strange its impact outside Ireland as a term for designating persons of Negro type, has as an advantage the established positive senses of 'noble' and 'distinguished.'

NOTES

<1> At the conference at which this paper was presented in oral form, Anne Hughes pointed out that it had been originally United Nations policy to eschew the -illion quandary by essentially the strategy suggested here, but that later the American/French system was uniformly adopted, largely because of the importance of scientific texts originating in the United States. See also Jastrab (1985).

<2> I had to deal with an actual case of this in translating Ní Shúilleabháin (1976) as Malone (1980a). For discussion, see Malone (1979a).

<3> For the concept "emblematic," see Malone (1980b, 1982b).

<4> It would appear that the convention of labeling Negroes as 'blue' may have had a rather direct ocular-perceptual origin. Thus an Irish description of African women around 1700 refers to them as dubh agus gorm 'black and blue' (Ó Fiannachta 1981:9). For a similar use of azrak 'blue' in Sudanese Arabic, see Bender (1983:20). (In fact, Africans have been portrayed as 'blue-black' or 'blue' in recent American fiction; e.g., Updike [1978:204, 225, 236], Pynchon [1974:117, 118]).

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GUIDELINES FOR TERMINOLOGY STANDARDIZATION AT THE UNITED NATIONS

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to shed some light upon terminology standardization policies in an international work environment. Specifically, the paper proposes several guiding principles for the selection of terms appropriate for official use in the United Nations in an attempt to clarify the notion of acceptability in multilingual communities. Evidence in support of these principles is drawn primarily from English and French, although similar phenomena could be identified in other languages used in international organizations, such as Arabic, Chinese, Russian and Spanish. Terminology standardization at the United Nations raises issues with respect to lexical creation and lexical variation in multilingual speech communities that should be addressed by language planners at the international level.

1. Definitions of terminology standardization

Linguists who have dealt with the subject of standardization have primarily focussed their studies on language standardization as a whole, and on the selection of a standard language at the national or polity level in particular[2] rather than on terminology standardization *per se*. Therefore what is known about *terminology standardization* is that it falls within the realm of the conscious and predictive approach to changes in language and language use and that it differs, at least theoretically, from *language levelling* which results from a natural process of borrowing or analogical creation for the purpose of internal symmetry within a linguistic system.

This study focusses on the specific process of terminology standardization in a multilingual speech community and on how it modifies and regulates its lexicon. In this paper, *terminology* refers to those items in the lexicon (single words, compounds or complex noun phrases) which are used in international multilateral relations. Thus, *terminology innovation* and *terminology change* are synonymous with *lexical innovation* and *lexical change*, since they result in new lexical items or shifts in already-existing ones. *Terminology standards* and *standardized terms* refer to lexical items which have been selected over other alternatives and have become required usage in the documents drafted and translated by the United Nations Secretariat staff. These standards do not include definitions[3] and refer exclusively to established units of expression. *Terminology standardization* is approached from the perspective of terminology planning and terminology establishment. Both activities appear to be essential in developing the capability of a language to cope with increasing demands in specific areas of the lexicon. The goal of terminology planning is to foresee the terminology needs of a given community whereas the goal of terminology establishment is to meet these needs. One efficient way of identifying the specific requirements of a community before tools are created to meet its needs[4] is to establish basic guiding principles for term selection, such as the ones to be presented in this paper. Therefore, the purpose of terminology standardization, as defined in this paper, is to shape aspects of language behavior in order to facilitate the communication process within the United Nations Secretariat. As a result, the guidelines listed in this paper may not be applicable to terms that have been standardized for the purpose of helping governments and experts outside the United Nations community (cf. WMO (1966) and Krommer-Benz (1985)). In the following pages terminology standardization is basically analyzed from the point of view of lexical innovation and lexical variation.[5]

1.1. Standardization and lexical creation

One of the major goals of terminology standardization, that of choosing between several equally valid alternatives on linguistic grounds, bears resemblance to lexical innovation. Both processes involve criteria such as the ones found in Diki-Kidiri et al. (1981:23-4):

(1)a. motivation: a term should be etymologically motivated, i.e., compositionally understandable (from the parts it is made of); it should follow from the morphological system of the language under consideration;
b. adequacy: a concept should be designated without ambiguity;
c. productivity: derivatives should be able to be coined on it.

In the United Nations Secretariat these criteria are applicable to a number of lexical areas in which demands for terminology innovation and standardization are created and in which no international standards exist: e.g., terms relating to the nomenclature of the Secretariat, to functions and titles, international public administration, economic and social development, science and technology, international law codification (cf. DCS/FS (1982)). As shown in Jastrab (1981), two major sources of UN terminology can be identified: the community of diplomats (i.e., delegates representing their countries at the United Nations' principal organs) and the Secretariat. Although terminology standardization is mainly approached in this paper from the point of view of the Secretariat, the coining of standard terms by diplomats[6] does exert a major influence in the overall standardization process.

One case in point is the standard status that consensus terms acquire despite their ungrammaticality. One of the most convincing illustration of this phenomenon is the French ungrammatical coinage pays en développement 'developing country', which in the mid 1960s replaced pays en voie de développement (also translated into English as 'developing country'). The latter phrase was perceived then as inadequate by French-speaking developing countries because the prepositional phrase en voie de was reanalyzed as literally meaning 'on the way to, on the verge of, on the threshold of', a meaning that the prepositional phrase has when it is not followed by a nominalization. Compare the following:

(2) a. le problème est en voie d'être résolu,
b.*le problème est en voie de solution,
'the problem is (on the verge of) being solved'.

When used in its literal sense, the prepositional phrase can take an adjective:

(3) Il est en bonne voie de réussir,
'He is well on the way to success'.

The semantic reanalysis of pays en voie de développement led some countries to believe that it was pragmatically inadequate because they felt that they were not on the threshold of development but well engaged in the process, as shown in the Kinyarwanda phrase below:

(4) Ibihugu bitera imbere mu majyambere,
'developing countries' (literally, 'countries which are going ahead in development').

In Parisian French, the prepositional phrase en voie de, followed by a nominal, is subcategorized in the lexicon for action nominals (therefore expressing duration), and the preposition en is subcategorized for factive nominals, as in:

(5) a. espèce en voie de disparition,
b. *espèce en disparition,
'endangered species'.

(6) a. véhicule en perte de vitesse,
b.*véhicule en voie de perte de vitesse,
'decelerating vehicle' (literally 'vehicle which is loosing speed').

En refers to a state, as shown in the following examples:

(7) a. voiture en transit
'transiting car'
b. dossier en attente
'pending file'

The phrase pays en développement is by now standard in UN documents. French academic circles overwhelmingly use pays en développement nowadays instead of pays en voie de développement or its shorter form PVD. The phrase, however, did not bring about a change in the subcategorization frames of action nominals in French since example (8) a., a coinage which appeared in the late 1970s, is still the only acceptable phrase:

(9) a. pays en voie d'industrialisation rapide,
b.*pays en industrialisation rapide,
'newly industrializing country'.

The change was reflected in Spanish, another language used at the United Nations, where país en vía de desarrollo became país en desarrollo. Italian, which is not one of the official languages of the United Nations, has not developed a similar tradition. Paese in via di sviluppo is the most common rendering of 'developing country', and paese in sviluppo is virtually unheard of. An alternative analysis of the phrase is suggested by native speakers of Spanish, who indicate that país en desarrollo is an abbreviation of país en estado de desarrollo rather than of the former país en vía de desarrollo. In French, such a hypothesis would not be plausible since the phrase pays en état de développement is perceived at best as tautological or meaningless, possibly because of the idiomatic phrase en état de 'in the condition of'.

The infinite variety of grammars acquired by native and non-native speakers may account for the occasional emergence of ungrammatical structures. However, lexical innovation is heavily constrained in the diplomatic and legal areas. Any change of what is considered official terminology may indeed suggest a change in meaning. Any deviation from accepted terminology may also be interpreted as intentional (i.e., as having a political purpose). Terms enshrined in international legal documents are the expression of the will of the United Nations community. They are selected deliberately as the balanced product of differing viewpoints.

1.2. Standardization and lexical variation

Terminology standardization also encompasses cases where there is a confusing variety of acceptable practice (such as spelling variants or competing forms with exactly the same meaning, as in the case of technical synonyms and variations of usage). In this sense, standardization refers to the process by which a term is selected for use over other equally plausible alternatives for the purpose of increasing uniformity in terminology use. Solving terminology conflicts may mean recommending a specific stock of official titles and names, salutations and closing formulae in letters and telegrams and standard phrases for the opening of both preambular and operative paragraphs of resolutions (as in DCS/DRATS (1978)). It may also encompass cases where one single form has to be chosen among several variants (including transliteration norms for titles or names written in a different alphabet and for which there is no established spelling).

One could say that country names, adjectives of nationality and names of currency units are standardized by the United Nations in the sense that the organization is required to use only one specific official version, even if it runs against the rules of certain official languages. Thus, the name of the country which was called Upper Volta until August 1984 is uniformly spelled Burkina Faso[7] in English and in French although French orthographic rules would dictate another spelling: Bourkina Fasso, as attested in various French newspapers. Similarly, in accordance with the wishes of its government, one standard title is used in UN documents to refer to Libya: Libyan Arab Jamahiriya.[8]

In the process of unifying terms of equal linguistic merit when no political decision has been made, preference is given to terms which closely follow the path pointed out in Paqué (1983):

(9) a. In cases where all variants are semantically adequate,
b. and are linguistically convenient (where linguistic convenience means easiness of use, e.g., short terms with easily derivable word groups),
c. then preference is given to the one that is coined in conformity with the linguistic intuitions of native speakers concerning the probable evolution of usage.

2. Guidelines for establishing standards

The guidelines for standardizing terminology listed in this paper can best be characterized as principles which govern the use of language in context. They specify the conditions terms must meet in order to be used in official documents by the UN Secretariat staff. In other words, they sharpen our understanding of what underlies terminology rules at the United Nations. Since these principles are largely elusive, they do not appear in any single document on terminology policy. They are deduced from general pragmatic strategies and translation practices of recognized value at the United Nations.[9]

There are apparently no comparable national standardization guidelines since speech communities do not as a rule make a point of

stressing the beliefs about the world that their language encodes.[10] These guiding principles do not supersede rules of good translating and good writing.[11] Instead, they supplement them with rules for successful international communication. These rule shape the lexicon and the syntax of the United Nations sublanguage, often referred to as UNese or United Nations jargon (cf. Jastrab (forthcoming (b))). The first group of guiding principles (the intralanguage principles) points to aspects of language that may not be shared by speakers of other languages. The second group (the interlanguage principles) takes into account other linguistic systems. What both groups show is that in order to promote international communication, staff members must take into consideration the languages and cultures of the receivers of messages. Speakers, writers and translators are responsible for getting the message across.

2.1. Intralanguage principles

2.1.1. Consistent use of one language variety

Language conflicts that arise from the use of regionalisms or geographically restricted terms are generally avoided, by conforming to the rules of one existing regional variety.[12] The choice of British English over other English varieties, for instance, was made at the time of the Geneva-based League of Nations, where the United States was not represented. This choice does not seem to have been questioned overtly by the New York-based United Nations, although some inconsistencies have crept in.[13] Consequently, the prepositions in (10) are not used in United Nations documents drafted in English, since they are labelled as Americanisms and have to be replaced by the prepositions in (11):

....(10) a. January through June,
b. in back of
c. in light of

(11) a. from January to June inclusive
b. behind
c. in the light of

In United Nations documents, misunderstandings may occur from the use of words which are perceived differently in the British English and American English varieties. The occurrence of confinement with respect to childbirth may sound offensive to American English speakers.[14] Similarly, they may not understand the British phrase twin cities as referring to sister cities in general, since for them the phrase refers specifically to Saint Paul and Minneapolis.[15]

2.1.2. Screening bias

The avoidance of terms is the other facet of the standardization process. Biases may disqualify terms from being used in documents prepared by the Secretariat. The use of the adjectives British and American at the United Nations is a case in point. Whenever used in connection with the official representation of countries in the United Nations, only the official forms of the United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Northern Ireland) and of the United States (of America) are appropriate. British is ambiguous because it is polysemous. It may be

synonymous with English. It may refer to the geographical area called the British Isles which includes Ireland, the Isle of Man and a number of other islands. It may also designate Great Britain alone to the exclusion of Northern Ireland. Likewise, American should not be used in the restricted sense where there is any danger of ambiguity (as possibly referring to the continent as a whole) or where it might give offense to other countries of the western hemisphere. The exclusive use of official titles is one way of avoiding ambiguity and controversy.

The non-use of cultural and religious terminologies is another case in point. For example, the French verb baptiser 'to christen' is often used in the sense of 'to give a name'. It belongs, however, to a specific religious terminology and for that reason may be offensive to believers with different convictions if used in a United Nations document in sentences such as (12):

(12) Le Comité a été baptisé Comité de rédaction
'The Committee was named the Drafting Committee'

Sentence (13) is strongly preferred:

(13) Le Comité a reçu le nom de Comité de rédaction.
'The Committee has received the name of Drafting Committee'

Similarly, quotations from the Bible or the Koran, proverbs, metaphors and idiomatic expressions are not to be used by UN Secretariat staff members when drafting or translating documents. The reason for consciously avoiding their use is obvious. The idiosyncratic meaning of some expressions may be distorted in translation, especially when they are based on cultural traits that are unfamiliar to other cultures. Gorbachev's literal rendering in English of a Russian saying in (14):

(14) If you send us a flea, we will put horseshoes on it
'if you think you have done well, we can always top it'

reportedly mystified an English speaker not familiar with the popular Russian tale. Schmemann (1985:44) who reports this incident suggests the interpretation given above. But Russian informants at the United Nations indicate that the image of putting a horseshoe on a flea rather means that all kinds of sophisticated tasks can be performed, once the chance of performing them is given.

Standard terms had to be coined to designate different categories of countries in order to avoid offensive adjectives, such as undeveloped, under-developed, under-privileged, poor, backward, which, until the mid-1960's, were used to refer to what today are uniformly called developing countries,[16] as opposed to developed countries. In this respect, Nida (1979:21) rightly underlines the importance of the psychologically prominent features of terms. Developing country superseded terms with condescending or pejorative overtones. Centrally planned economy[17] and market economy have also become standards in UN documents. The former supersedes terms such the ones listed in (15) and the latter designates countries previously referred to as in (16):

(15) state economy
state-controlled economy
socialist economy
Eastern Block economy
Marxist economy

(16) capitalist economy
free-world economy

What the examples in (15) and (16) show is that frequency of use is not a sufficient condition qualifying a term for standardization. In fact, established usage cannot be adopted without examination, given the political repercussions that some terms could trigger at the United Nations.

Standardization also encompasses the use of a non-sexist terminology. Parallel terms have been coined in languages, such as French, which require gender specification (e.g., le Secrétaire général and la Secrétaire générale).

2.1.3. Avoiding unintentional ambiguity

Designations of the seasons (summer, autumn (fall), winter, spring) which relate to different times of the year in the northern and southern hemispheres, are not used in reference to the time of a meeting (DCS (1983:392)) since a sentence such as (17) would be ambiguous:

(17) The meeting will be held in the spring.

Long and sometimes unwieldy noun phrases are often acceptable since, as Peirce has noted, terms have different consequences. A similar interpretation is sometimes secured in different languages and political systems by the insertion of additional terms, as in torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment (GA Resolution 3452 (XXX) of 9 December 1975). Typical standardized phrases are found also in the United Nations Charter (such as international peace and security, (peaceful) settlement of disputes, human rights and fundamental freedoms) and in other international legal instruments.[18] Conciseness and convenience of use therefore are not considered prerequisites for standardization.

2.1.4. Systematic use of the same level of language

Functional differentiation among registers has to be highly developed for the proper choice of terms. In most languages United Nations is synonymous with public officialdom. In such a formal context, the highest form of speech is expected. Words designated colloquial, such as liaise, are not expected to be used in an official context. This may explain too why misleading conclusions were drawn when, in the context of the United Nations, Khrushchev used the following Russian slang expression, mentioned in English in Guinzbourg (1969:488):

(18) a. my vas za-choronim
b. We you future Perfect-entomb
'we shall get to the top first'; literally 'We shall bury you'

In English, and especially in sports slang, one can also use exaggerated statements which have lost their literal meaning, as in:

(19) The Celtics annihilated the Lakers in the first game of the series,
(20) The Lakers killed the Celtics[19]

In these examples, to annihilate and to kill mean 'to defeat soundly'. What seems to have been missed in the case of (18) is that an inappropriate level of language was used.

2.2. Interlanguage principles

2.2.1. Avoiding ambiguity due to lexical differences

False friends, i.e., cognates which have acquired different meanings in different languages, are generally avoided because they may be confusing to an untrained readership. The verb demander 'to ask' is not used when drafting resolutions into French because it might be understood by an English speaker as 'to demand'. Similarly, the French phrase:

(21) résoudre un problème,

is often translated as in (22) because of its French cognate, although (23) is more appropriate:

(22) to resolve a problem
(23) to solve a problem.

Fuller (1973:56) points out that (21) is a dangerous phrase to use in conference work, as it is likely to indicate analytic arrangement and consideration of the various phases or items of a problem rather than a final solution or answer, a meaning conveyed in (23).

Since what is regarded as ambiguous differs from one language to another, one language may require that additional elements be specified, whereas another may not. The French sentence in (24) is translated differently, depending upon the context, as shown in (25):

(24) Le texte se réfère à la résolution,
(25) a. The text makes reference to the resolution,
b. The text has reference to the resolution.

The proper context will have to be sought each time. On the other hand, the English phrase in (26):

(26) Open-ended conference,

has a more elaborate French equivalent, as indicated in (27); renderings such as the one mentioned in (28) are not used because they could be

ambiguous as to whether spatial or temporal limits are put on the conference:

(27) Conférence à composition non limitée,
'Conference with non-limited membership',

(28)*Conférence non limitée,
'Non-limited Conference'.

One additional way of circumventing problems raised by interlanguage lexical differences is to use terms common (or made common) to all languages. Latin phrases are also frequently used in documents drafted in English. This may explain why so many find their way into the Romance language versions and into Russian, although they do not occur in these languages. Prima facie is found in all official language versions, except Arabic and Chinese.[20] This phrase, which has long been part of English (cf. Fowler (1979:325), is not listed in current French dictionaries, such as, for instance, the Petit Robert (1984) or the Petit Larousse illustré 1984, where its translated equivalent à première vue appears.[21] Occasionally, the English term is indicated in brackets after a French or Spanish translation to clearly indicate the concept it refers to in the original language.[22] Borrowings, especially those which refer to a specific political system, such as the Afrikaans word apartheid (which entered the English, French, Russian and Spanish lexicons), are used with restraint. As a rule, borrowings and new coinages (words which do not fill a real lexical gap but follow a trend, for instance) are filtered out.[23]

Generally, the goal conflict so aptly described in Jernudd (1977) with respect to terminology innovation emerges also at the United Nations: each language group introduces truly international borrowings or calques into its language to enhance international communication, while it promotes indigenous sources of terminology which militate against 'foreign' linguistic goods in all shapes.

2.2.2. Preserving intelligibility

Whenever it is not possible to determine the precise equivalent of a term, a literal translation is likely to be less misleading to the knowledgeable reader than a doubtful rendering (DCS/ES (1984:3)), even though this strategy may necessitate the introduction of calques and changes in the area of syntax, as shown in Jastrab (forthcoming (a)). According to Fuller (1973:61), the expert may smile at a more or less literal translation but will recognize the sense and mentally substitute the technical term himself, whereas a wrong term may mislead him. A case in point is the literal rendering of the financial term hot bill found in Alvey (1984). It refers to a bill which matures at sight or too soon to be collected on time. The standard French translation is very close to the English term: effet brûlant 'burning bill'.

3. Issues raised by standardization

These terminology guiding principles can be considered as prolegomena to a study of language change in multilingual/multicultural settings. They point to ways in which change is constrained by the social

context in which it takes place, as pointed out by Labov (1972). They are meant as a tool for bilingual users wh are familiar with at least two languages and cultures. They help them eliminate errors, imprecision and unwanted ambiguity by securing homogeneity in term selection. They also emphasize a special UN style developed in all the official languages and underscore biases, ambiguities and false-friendships. Moreover they shed some light on the culture and the attitudes of the Secretariat. Due account has to be taken of the various cultures represented in the United Nations, the multiplicity of languages and traditions and the need to be intelligible and acceptable to all readers, many of whom have a limited knowledge of the languages of the United Nations, as pointed out in DCS (1983:iii). The intelligibility requirement may often act against diversity in terminology. In this sense one can claim that some form of lexical simplification takes place at the United Nations. This phenomenon, mentioned in Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983), refers in this paper to the limited number of lexical resources which have to be selected by the staff.[24] This may be due to the fact that in a non-homogeneous speech community, little is presupposed in terms of common, shared knowledge.

An evaluation of terminology standardization at the United Nations should consider the requirements and the effects of standardization.

3.1. Standardization requirements

3.1.1. Attitudes towards terminology standardization seem to play an important role in the implementation of the standards. Negative attitudes to standardization are correlated with the belief that conscious and deliberate planning of a language (often of its lexicon) is doomed to failure or that it is illegitimate. Usage and usage alone should play a standardizing role, according to this view, which presupposes that usage is neutral. Yet, as pointed out by Lindfelt (1984:2), usage tends to be dictated by various forces (e.g., lobbies, ideological movements, advertising agencies, mass media, stars). On the other hand, positive attitudes on the part of the users of terminology standards are correlated with the perception that adhering to established terminology is necessary. In novel environments, appeal to authoritative sources in doubtful cases is common procedure. In the case of an unfamiliar subject, it is all too easy to misinterpret or shift the emphasis by departing from established terminology. International civil servants are prone to feel linguistically insecure and therefore to need terminological and grammatical guidance since most of them work outside their native environments. They no longer receive from their linguistic community the reinforcement that they need in order to feel secure about their language norms. Their insecurity may be compounded as they may be familiar with two or more languages or sets of language norms. Recent statistics show that speakers of over 180 languages work at the United Nations Secretariat.

3.1.2. Terminology standardization requires a sophisticated and wide-ranging dissemination system so that standardization is fully and instantly implemented. The value and force of a standard come from its consistent use (Rondeau (1981:94)). Newly-developing terminology data banks can be instrumental in efficiently disseminating the standards. They can carry all obsolete, regional, improper, non-official or shortened variants of terms as cross-references to the preferred or standardized versions.

3.1.3. Terminology standardization requires different fields of expertise, ranging from mastery of one's own language to in-depth knowledge of the subject field and the context in which the terminology standards are used.

3.1.4. Terminology standardization takes place after a consultation process. Most standard-setting decisions are made by teams of senior staff members who are also the implementers of these decisions (e.g., revisers in a translation service). As pointed out by Lindfelt (1984:3), whenever terminology standards are established by those who are also supposed to implement them, terminology standardization is more successful.

3.1.5. In the absence of clearly defined policies in matters of terminology management, conflicts often arise as to which language should be used as a source language and which administrative entity ultimately should be responsible for setting terminology standards on a regular basis and for coordinating similar efforts in other parts of the United Nations system.

3.2. Standardization effects

3.2.1. Terminology standardization should promote consistency and not artificial uniformity, which could have impoverishing effects on a language. It should not conflict with stylistic variation which is needed to avoid monotony.[25]

3.2.2. Terminology standards behave like idioms. The set phrase science and technology functions in English as a collective noun, as shown in (29):

(29) United Nations Symposium on space science and technology and its applications particularly in the developing countries.

It is translated into French by science et technique, following a precedent established in the early 1960s. Where it does not co-occur with science, technology is translated as technologie in most cases nowadays.

3.2.3. Because the process of standardization at the UN aims at promoting neutral ways of expression, terms or phrases are selected which may appear 'unnatural' to the languages involved (cf. Jastrab (forthcoming (a)).

3.2.4. Restandardization may occur as the understanding of concepts evolves or as some standardized equivalents prove less efficient than others with time. In Arabic, the term Administrator, which designates the chief administrative officer of the United Nations Development Programme, was once rendered by the circumlocution 'the one who is administratively responsible', as no ready equivalent could be found. At the present time, the standard equivalent in Arabic is 'Director of the Programme'.

Further research on terminology standardization in multilingual environments should also address issues such as the following: to what extent do the linguistic skills that one gradually acquires and

unconsciously applies when working at the UN provide evidence for the weak version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis? This version states that language plays a vital part in thought and culture. The solutions to the types of terminological problems raised in a multiple contact situation, such as the one under study, show how thought can determine language, rather than being determined by it (as suggested in a crude form of linguistic determinism). So far, the uncovering of inherent biases in language and the circumventing of problems posed by these biases remain a largely uncharted field.

Is a terminology standard actually applicable outside the sociolinguistic environment for which it was created? Even though, in general, terminology decisions are taken within the rules and parameters of a given language, the community for which these standards are developed imposes linguistic constraints of its own.[26] At the United Nations, grammaticality or naturalness may at times be bent for the sake of making communication possible, despite different ideologies, for in this international environment it is believed that 'opportunities for peace are improved when conditions are created to enhance international understanding and cooperation' (cf.A/40/256, p.18#6).

NOTES

[1]In the preparation of this paper I am especially indebted to a number of colleagues in the United Nations Secretariat, particularly to Ralph Chipman, Lie Cui, Phyllis Dickstein, Wai-Tsu Fan, Harald Hille, Anne M. Hughes, François Mengin, Ruprecht Paqué, Christine Pelletier, Jacques Roman, Douglas Rose, Levon Shakhzadeyan, Mohamed Shoukry, and Arturo Villanueva. I have also benefited from the helpful comments of Professor John Singler of New York University. A version of this paper was read at the Third Conference on Language and Communication, organized on December 14, 1984 by the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems.

[2]For some scholars, language planning deals almost exclusively with language standardization (cf. Neustupny (1970) and Garvin (1973)). As such, language standardization differs in scope and purpose from terminology standardization. Nonetheless, one can adapt Ferguson's definition of standardization (1968:31) as the process of acceptance of one variety of a language throughout the speech community as a supradialectal norm to cases of terminological supranational standardization, as pointed out by Jernudd and Das Gupta (1971:204).

[3]Standardization of terminology usage as discussed in this paper is, in some cases, independent of questions of standardization of definitions. Few agreements on concepts (let alone systems of concepts) have been reached at the United Nations, even though such agreements could promote unambiguous communication, as claimed in Felber (1980:65). For example, the term <u>outer space</u> is used in a standard way in United Nations documents (whereas <u>space</u> and <u>cosmos</u> are more frequent outside the United Nations) despite the fact that no agreement on a definition or delimitation of <u>outer space</u> has been reached so far (cf.

A/AC.105/352#9-14). One reason given by delegates to the United Nations for not defining terms is that playing on ambiguity is what diplomacy is all about. On the other hand, a common set of definitions and terminology is in some instances needed at the international level for the purpose of reporting to the United Nations, especially where comparable statistical information is required, as in the case of mineral resources (cf. E/CN.3/1985/9), or geographical names (cf. E/1985/38).

[4]Terminology tools which purport to help and caution members of a professional group include ONUG (1982), which provides assistance on the proper usage of specific terms in the UN environment and DCS/FS (1982), which lists terms to be used to the exclusion of others.

[5]Other definitions of terminology standardization can be found in the rather limited literature on the subject. Standardization may mean 'formulating and applying rules for an orderly approach to a specific activity for the benefit and with the co-operation of all concerned and in particular for the promotion of optimum overall economy taking due account of functional conditions and safety requirements' (ISO (1971:1)). It may also refer to the promotion of the use of a single expression to designate a concept, even if no other expression is used to represent the same concept (Nakos (1983)).

[6]Among the most famous standard terms coined by delegates are the following: new international economic order and common heritage of mankind. The former was contributed by Ambassador Mohammed Bedjaoui of Algeria (cf. Bedjaoui (1979)) and has given rise to productive derivatives, such as new world information and communication order, new international humanitarian order, new international technological order. The latter was launched in 1967 by Ambassador Arvido Pardo of Malta in a UN speech on the resources of the seabed (Friedmann (1971:64-70)). Later the term was borrowed to describe the natural resources of the Moon as well.

[7]Burkina 'upright men' in More (Mossi) and faso 'land' in Dioula (Bambara) hold true to the orthographic conventions of the languages from which they come. The same holds true for the adjective of nationality Burkina-Be which is coined on Burkina in More and nabe 'men' in Fulani (Peuhl). More, Dioula and Fulani are the languages of the most important groups in Burkina Faso, according to officials working at the Burkina Faso Mission to the United Nations. Hence, they are represented in the names of the country and its inhabitants. Although nabe is a plural form (the singular form is nado), it is the only form which is used in UN documents so as to avoid confusions in languages which form their plurals differently.

[8]Jamahiriya, which means 'republic' in Arabic, has been kept untranslated as part of the official name of the country in all the other five languages of the United Nations. This deliberate borrowing is indicative of a political change. According to Kadhafi (1984:23), Jamahiriya means 'state of the masses': 'There is no political party in power in Libya.... Authority is within the hands of the people'.

[9]Among the standard reference works used for the purposes of this study are DCS (1983), Hindle (1965), DCS/ES (1984), DCS/FS (1981 and 1982) and

ONUG (1982). A number of translators, editors and terminologists have also been consulted. Yet terminology standardization tools such as translation and editorial manuals or terminology bulletins cannot alone meet the constantly growing language needs of the speakers/writers/readers of the United Nations. It is therefore expected that the principles underlying these guidelines be used to generate acceptable UN language.

[10]Similar attempts can be found sporadically in guidelines for non-discriminatory language usage. Such studies do 'reflect sensitivity to the social implications of language', as pointed out in Frank and Anshen (1983:114). They deal, however, specifically with ambiguous sex-specific terms and stereotypes regarding sex roles. These are examples of only one type of bias to be avoided in international settings.

[11]In fact, the same requirements apply to terms in the process of drafting, translating and searching for acceptable standards: fidelity to the original ideas, brevity, clarity and simplicity.

[12]The problem of choosing one standard variety of language to use in international settings is a political issue which requires a number of compromises. For instance, in an international setting correctness cannot be defined in terms of usage and usage alone, as advocated in Fries (1940). Questions such as the following would then have been raised: whose usage? and who decides which usage is more correct and therefore preferable in an organization which promotes international cooperation without distinction as to language? The problems raised by the varieties which have been selected for each official language (e.g., modern universal Arabic vs. specific Egyptian Arabic traits) are discussed in Jastrab (forthcoming (b)). In the case of British English, whenever staff members are in doubt, they are invited to consult standard reference tools, such as Sykes (1982) for spelling and Fowler (1979) for usage.

[13]For example, billion is used in UN documents in the American English sense of a thousand million, not in the British sense of one million millions.

[14]Although confinement may also mean 'imprisonment' in British English as shown in Sykes (1982), it seems that because of its specific reference to 'the period a mother is confined to bed during and after childbirth' in British Englis, it is less affected by pejoration in that variety of English than in American English in which the influence of the verb to confine 'to keep shut up' prevails.

[15]As pointed out by J. Singler (personal communication).

[16]Underdevelopment can still be used today in UN documents to refer to the general phenomenon. Furthermore, new derivatives have been coined on developing countries in the 1970's, e.g., least developed among the developing countries or least developed countries (LDCs).

[17]On which new coinages have been derived, such as WOCA (created on World Outside the Centrally planned economies Area) (cf. A/39/470 p.22, Note 1).

[18]Enumerations can in fact restrict the scope of some legal documents. The international convention which is being drafted at the UN against mercenarism only focusses on the recruitment, use, financing and training of mercenaries (cf. Jastrab (1981)).

[19]Pointed out by John Singler (personal communication).

[20]The Chinese Translation Service has compiled a Latin-Chinese glossary in which an impressive number of Latin expressions, which are commonly used in English texts, are given in Chinese.

[21]Languages seem to vary as to which Latin expressions are familiar to their speakers. English resorts to Latin in the case of de gustibus (et coloribus non disputandum), where French uses a literal translation des goûts et des couleurs (on ne discute pas), but translates the Latin phrase Errare humanum est 'to err is human', which is used as such in French. Latin phrases may also change meaning from one language to the other. This is the case of quid pro quod. In English, quid pro quo refers to something given or received for something else. In French, quiproquo refers to a misunderstanding, a mistake of taking one thing for another.

[22]Code-switching from French to English may be acceptable in the following sentence: Le Président ou le Vice-Président peuvent être destitués de leur charge sur mise en accusation (impeachment)'The President or Vice-President may be impeached and removed from office (literally, the President or Vice President may be removed from office after an accusation has been presented against them'). Code-switching makes it clear to what legal concept and to what legal system the text refers (cf. A/AC.109/827#27).

[23]Because of this rule, the novelty of some terms may be concealed by skillful translation efforts. A case in point is the neologism multibilateral, first translated into French by 'multilatéral et bilatéral' rather than by 'multibilatéral' because the latter does not appear in standard dictionaries. Yet by avoiding the new coinage the French translator has failed to convey a new concept. A multibilateral project is not one that could be either multilateral or bilateral, but one that is both multilateral (because it is implemented by a multilateral organization) and bilateral (because it is chosen specifically by a donor).

[24] Note that no similar constraints are placed upon the syntax of UN documents, although a typical UN style has developed, as shown in Jastrab (forthcoming (b)).

[25]Languages differ with respect to their degree of tolerance of repetition of the same terms. For example, Romance languages tend to abhor this type of repetition, which is inoffensive to the English ear (DCS/ES (1984:2). They require, for instance, that synonyms or near synonyms be used in contexts where a change of terminology does not suggest a change of meaning. But this is not true for English. In translating from French into English, one becomes aware of the stock means of achieving variety, as with rappeler, which functions as a synonym of to mention, although its literal meaning is: to call back to mind, to recollect, to recall.

[26]For example, it is not the main purpose of terminology standardization at the United Nations to impose a universal norm in a given language, which should be followed by speakers of that language in all parts of the world. Any such attempt would be doomed to failure since the choice of one regional variety as the standard may not be acceptable outside the UN.

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LANGUAGE POLICY AT THE AGENCE DE COOPERATION CULTURELLE ET TECHNIQUE

Abstract

An introduction to the Agence de coopération culturelle et technique, describing various aspects of the language problem it faces, and explaining the major trends in the organization's implicit language policy. The comments are those of a close observer and should not in any way be interpreted as the official views of that body.

This paper is an English version of the French original delivered at the Conference and subsequently published in the journal Language Problems and Language Planning.

The Agence de coopération culturelle et technique is an international governmental organization founded in Niamey in 1970 in order to unite in a single agency all countries whose common link is the use of the French language. The overall objective was to foster co-operation among these countries in education, science and technology, and more generally in all endeavours that would help to develop member states and to bring their people closer together. Today, the organization numbers thirty-one (31) member countries, six(6) associated states, and two (2) participating governments.

There have been two major stages in the development of the Agence. The first preoccupation of its founders was to form a linguistic entity, in which the identifying element was French, by creating co-operative relations and bonds among all countries that use the French language in one way or another. These countries represent a number of distinct language groups: African languages in the southern Sahara, Arabic in North Africa, Creole languages in the West Indies and the Indian Ocean, Asian languages in Vietnam, and French as a mother tongue in Europe and North America. From the beginning, many people saw a connection, considered ambiguous by some, regrettable and unjustified by others, between the Agence and the defence of the French language, which explains, for example, why Algeria chose not to join the organization. Once the network of French-speaking countries had quickly been established, the Agence moved on to its second objective, that of making the organization work, or, more specifically, to use the linguistic

bonds thus forged among countries to create a co-operative association through which to promote the development of each and every member of the Agence. The French language, therefore, beyond its initial role as a binding agent, becomes principally a means of communication among countries of widely varying languages and cultures, with the overall goal now being to develop each member of the organization while respecting its cultural identity.

After this brief description of the Agence, we can now examine the various facets of the organization's language policy. Three main elements emerge: the principle of French as a common language and the organization's sole working language; the relationship between French and the national languages of the member countries; and finally, the relationship of French to Arabic and English, both international languages in direct competition with French.

French is the common and sole working language of the Agence. This calls for several comments. First of all, the status of French varies widely from one country to another. Without going into too many details, we can at least look at the position French holds in various countries: it is the official mother tongue in France, Belgium, Canada, Quebec and New Brunswick; it ranks as a non-native but official language in several sub-Saharan countries in Africa and in Creole-speaking countries such as Haiti and the Seychelles; it is a primary

foreign but unofficial language in Morocco and Tunisia; and finally, it is a secondary but important foreign language, often for historical reasons, in countries such as Egypt. The uneven status of French results in widely differing attitudes within the Agence, which up to now have remained unspoken but which often lead to misunderstandings during meetings and discussions, both within the secretariat and among experts or ministers. In particular, the ideology of "defending" the French language rises repeatedly from its ashes and must constantly be rethought in relation to national languages and in relation to English. French is the working language of the Agence for the simple reason that it is the one common language of the member countries. As we saw earlier, this shared language was the basis for the creation of this particular co-operative entity, much as English has served to bind the Commonwealth. This choice of a single language was appropriate because it promotes co-operation, but it was also obligatory, since no other choice was possible. This does not necessarily mean, however, that the organization's activities must always be conducted in French, at every stage of their realization. It is perfectly conceivable that a project might be drawn up in French but carried out in one or several other languages. This possibility is currently being discussed at the Agence.

This leads us to the relationship between French and the national languages of the various countries. The Agence has firmly opted to promote the national languages of its members, and to respect fully the language policy of each individual country. This means that the Agence has no intention of systematically promoting French at the expense of national languages. The organization has therefore pursued a range of programs whose overall aim is to expand national languages for use in new fields, for example by developing technical or scientific terminology or by training radio broadcasters in their native tongue. At the same time, each member country attempts in its own way to define a new form of bilingualism with respect to French and the national language, in keeping with a theory of functional bilingualism whereby areas of use are divided between the two languages according to the type of communication and the people involved. Discussions on this subject show that a great deal of confusion still exists.

The bilingual relationship (French/national language) may in reality turn into a trilingual relationship (French/national language/English), and even, in the countries of the Sahel, a quadrilingual relationship (French/national language/English/Arabic), with Arabic being introduced mainly by Islam, which, more than a religion, is also a way of life. English is spread through science and technology, and, more and more, by those who pursue

their graduate studies in the United States, in all fields including linguistics. Countries in which French is not the mother tongue have a choice, at least in principle, between the two major languages of the developed world, French and English, and it is fair to speculate that they might be tempted to simplify matters by choosing one of the two, more likely English, if not right across the board then at least in certain fields, especially scientific ones. This trend is already quite apparent in a country such as Tunisia, which has traditionally been open to all sources of intellectual and economic enrichment. Attitudes are not the same among born French-speakers. The feeling of competition between the two languages has its roots in the historical confrontation, once constant, between England and France. With the centre of the English-speaking world having shifted to the United States, and especially since the unprecedented growth in research and production activity in American universities, laboratories and industries, traditional attitudes have begun to change and are currently headed in opposite directions. On the one hand, there are those who maintain that the future of the French language is in jeopardy and who ask themselves how to restore the balance in relation to English. This defensive ideology inspires rhetoric, but to the clear-sighted it now appears to be quite outdated, completely ineffective and not really based on the factors of linguistic imbalance. This ideology has not been and cannot be any more effective than was the Maginot line in the last World War. The aim now is to substitute a strategy of

strengthening French through constant and repeated use at the same level of competence, excellence and productivity as English. On the other hand, there are those who accept the predominance of English, especially in science, technology and economics, and who do not hesitate to make systematic use of English, even if their command of this language is less than perfect. In fact, this group considers that the division of areas of communication into French and English is an irreversible trend and that in several fields French can no longer be an international language and therefore finds its use restricted, de facto, to the French-speaking community. The conflict between these two attitudes is clear and it fuels constant debate at all levels and in all parts of the French-speaking world, especially in those countries where French is the mother tongue, but also, by ricochet and linguistic solidarity, in other countries. The Agence does not escape this debate and is in fact the ideal forum in which to discuss these trends. For the time being, no clear policy has been defined.

The relationship with Arabic in more complex. Arabic has a truly international status: it is the official language of a great many countries, a working language at the United Nations and several related international agencies, the official language of the Arab League and ALESCO, and spread worldwide by Islam. Through historical circumstances, Arabic is in contact with English, in the Mashriq, and with French, in the Maghreb, with both

serving as source languages for the development of Arabic terminology. Finally, Arabic has not developed to the same extent as European languages and must, as must other languages, undergo a program of modernization in terms of graphic symbols (for use of modern machines), syntax and especially terminology. Disagreement among Arab countries on the many decisions to be made throughout this language modernization process greatly hampers progress and efficiency. The Arab members of the Agence therefore have a unique view of their relationship to the French language, since they must integrate it with their own language, with its problems of pan-Arab modernization, and with English, the primary foreign language of many of their fellow Arab countries.

As you can see, therefore, the Agence is an organization of great linguistic complexity, masked by the use of a single working language.

In conclusion, I think it would be best to tell you what I feel, as an observer, are the dominant trends within the Agence as far as language policy is concerned.

With regard to English, the most common attitude is that the use of French in advanced fields should be encouraged, which assumes on the one hand that French is able to express all new concepts through the development of specialized terminology to keep up with advances in knowledge and technology,

and on the other hand that French is actually used in international communication, whether in written or spoken form. But there is currently no defined and common strategy and all the means of achieving this objective have yet to be explored.

With respect to national languages, a consensus has been reached in the past few years on the following points.

The language policy of each country is an internal matter. While the member countries of the Agence may assist one another by sharing their experience, and while the Agence may eventually compile some form of guidelines on the process of defining a language policy, the decision-making authority rests with individual governments.

French and the various national languages must not compete, with French attempting to supplant the national languages, but rather should complement one another and evolve together according to the overall situation of each country and of major language groups, and according to the ability of national languages to serve as a medium of communication in new fields. French thus becomes, with no paradox or contradiction, a means of promoting national languages and cultures.

Finally, the Agence considers it one of its responsibilities to promote the development and use of national languages by providing both scientific and financial support, as well as the necessary information, for socio-linguistic projects, the creation of national research teams, liaison between institutions and the ongoing training of researchers.

On a more general, perhaps philosophical, level, the Agence feels that the world will have suffered a serious loss if the trend toward cultural and linguistic homogenization continues. This conviction is the very foundation of the organization's implicit language policy; it underlines the need to preserve cultural and linguistic diversity; it also justifies efforts to maintain French as an international language, as an alternative to English and another way of describing man and his world.

Youssef Mahmoud (Language Training Programme, United Nations)

LANGUAGE TRAINING IN THE CONTEXT OF LANGUAGE PLANNING IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to discuss how the United Nations has attempted to regulate its language resources to further the goals and principles of its Charter. More specifically it discusses the impact some language planning policies have had on language training in the Secretariat both at the design and implementation levels. The concluding pages allude to the impact language training has had on the linguistic skills of U.N. staff members.

The views expressed herein are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the view of the United Nations.

As you can see from the programme, the title of my presentation is Language Training in the Context of Language Planning in International Organizations. To appreciate the role language training plays in the Secretariat of the United Nations and how its various phases are planned and implemented, I will first describe the overall language planning context within which this activity has been taking place.

However, because of the diversification as to what is meant and understood by language planning (LP), I thought it would be useful to give you an overview of how the United Nations has tried to regulate its language resources, before I venture with that is meant by language planning.

Article 1 of Chapter I of the United Nations' Charter states more eloquently than I can summarize the purposes and the goals the founding nations have painstakingly set for it. In addition to maintaining international peace and developing friendly relations among nations, the United Nations serves as "a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations in the attainment of these common ends." In other words, the United Nations serves as an international forum where people who share the same global concerns and adhere to the same lofty aims come to talk to each other, with the hope of reconciling their differences and charting a common course of action.

Article 2 of the same Chapter specifies in no uncertain terms that this talk and these discussions must be based on certain inviolable rules or principles. They are too numerous to recall for you here, except for the one principle which I feel has motivated and at the same time constrained what the U.N. has been able to accomplish globally, and in the area of language planning. This principle which incidentally heads the list of the other principles mentioned in this article states that "the (U.N.) Organization is based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all its members." In other terms, each nation regardless of its size, its wealth or its international standing has one vote, and can potentially make a difference in the final outcome in most organs of the world body. This in turn entails that the U.N. can only do what the majority of its equally independent members allow it to do. Nowhere is this paradox best illustrated than in the way these member states have attempted to manage and harness the most awesome and complex linguistic diversity ever assembled under one roof.

The founding nations of this Organization recognized early enough that this linguistic diversity constituted a problem they needed to resolve before they could deal with the pressing world problems that had brought them together. This language problem was even more pressing at that time (in the aftermath of World War II) as they did not wish, in the absence of an internationally acceptable language, to see any nation or a group of nations use the language problem to impose their cultural domination on others.

Thus in 1946, the General Assembly on the recommendation of the First Committee (Political and Security) decided on an important resolution establishing that "in all organs of the United Nations, other than the International Court of Justice, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish shall be the official languages, and English and French the working languages." (Annex I) The resolution went on to specify the functional allocation of these languages in the General Assembly and related services, such as translation and documentation.[1]

It is interesting to note in this connection that this decision emanated from the political and security affairs Committee, and that the languages are listed strictly in alphatetical order. When in 1973, Arabic became the sixth official language of the U.N., it naturally headed the list.

Over the years however, the differentiation between working and official languages came under attack, as the concern for equality among all official languages grew. A number of resolutions were subsequently adopted making Arabic, Chinese, Russian and Spanish the working languages of the General Assembly, the Security Council and the Economic and Social Council, on equal footing with English and French. This development has rendered the traditional distinction between working and official languages somewhat less clearcut, especially in certain departments of the Secretariat servicing these organs.

Despite this prescribed multilingualism, member states were still dissatisfied with the apparent differentiation in the treatment of the official languages and in particular English and French, the working languages of the Secretariat. In the late 1960's several resolutions were passed by the General Assembly calling for greater equity among the working languages, whether the issue was recruitment standards and practices, communications with Governments or internal administration of the Secretariat.

The most important piece of legislation in this regard is Resolution 2480 B (XXIII) (Annex II). This resolution which was adopted unanimously in 1968, was a culmination of lengthy and sometimes, heated debates in the Fifth Committee (Administrative and Budgetary Questions). During these discussions the member states underscored in no uncertain terms the great importance they attached to linguistic balance.

Any attempt or argument on the part of the Secretariat, justifiying the relative importance of a working language in relation to another (by linking it for example to official duties, etc...) was looked upon as a disguised hope that a particular language become even more preponderant within the Organization. While this concept of linguistic balance is nowhere mentioned in the Charter, member states perceived it as an essential corollary of the principle of equal sovereignty among nations, discussed above.

Before we turn to Resolution 2480 B and discuss its impact on language training in the Secretariat, let us reflect for a moment on the relevance of the above legislative overview to language planning. What we have seen is the arduous task a political, international Organization undertakes to establish a limited number of languages as a means of official communication among 159 nations, most of which are multilingual entities in themselves. The overriding motivation for this gigantic endeavour is the hope of promoting understanding across real and imaginary boundaries, both within and outside the U.N. This conscious, deliberate effort to formulate language policy and articulate plans for its implementation is what is commonly language planning.

From a conceptual point of view, the literature on language planning distinguishes two aspects of planning. One is called status planning which refers to the position of one language in relation to others as viewed by a political body. In our case it is the conferring upon a limited number of languages the status of official or working and deciding where they are to be used and for what purposes. (Kloss, 1968:81-3). The second aspect of language planning is corpus planning (codification) where the language is developed, new terms are coined (terminology), etc... Corpus planning is very much an important activity in the U.N. especially in the areas of translation and interpretation.

But since my paper is not primarily on language planning, I would not discuss the concept any further and move on to discuss the implementation of one aspect of language policy in the Secretariat, namely the teaching and learning of the six official languages of the United Nations, as mandated by the 1968 resolution.

You may recall that the explicit goal of Resolution 2480 B (XXIII) is to ensure linguistic balance in the Secretariat. For that purpose, the Secretary-General was requested to take a number of actions to achieve that goal. The first part of the resolution deals with the language qualifications of candidates at the time of recruitment, which will be discussed by the next speaker. The second part deals with the development of the linguistic skills of the staff members. More specifically, the Secretary-General was urged to take all the necessary steps to enable professional staff who are subject to geographic distribution (2), to learn a second official language, and "to ensure that modern teaching methods are used as widely as possible." (para. 4)

Recognizing that learning languages by adults, like the acquisition of other social behaviour requires time and effort, and above all a willingness to change habits and attitudes, the General Assembly instituted in subparagraphas 1(b) (i) and (iii) of the resolution a series of incentives to encourage the acquisition of this linguistic knowledge.

In paragraph 2 of this resolution the General Assembly has decided that:

> "that confirmation of the knowledge of a second language shall be the obtaining of the language proficiency certificate, as at present awarded by the United Nations, that is, by boards consisting of language teachers; since the end in view is essentially to provide understanding of the written and the spoken language, the language training courses will have to be modified accordingly."

It is clear from this paragraph that the main goal of the language courses at the United Nations is to ensure that participants who complete the prescribed programme in any of the official languages will be able to understand the written and the spoken language. This does not imply however that the skills of speaking and writing will be neglected. (Note the word essentially underlined in the quoted text above.) It simply means that the sponsors of this resolution realized that it would probably take years of study and several language immersion experiences before a staff member can acquire equal proficiency in all the language skills. Moreover (but), if the end-goal of the language courses is not to prepare staff members to work in the second language, any emphasis on equal proficiency in all four skills would entail that staff members who have greater opportunity to use the second language in their job would have an advantage over those with no exposure to the language outside the classroom. This would have been inconsistent with the goal sought by the resolution (i.e. equity among all the official languages).

For the language planning practitioners (i.e. administrators, co-ordinators, teachers, etc...) this means that in designing the curriculum, the skills of reading and listening comprehension will be given prominence while providing for a limited but functional proficiency in speaking and writing.

Moreover, this predicated emphasis on the skills of reading and listening is also pedagogically sound since it is consistent with current developments in the fields of language teaching and second language acquisition. In fact, recent studies seem to indicate that:

a) listening and reading are the skills which most help the student to acquire the knowledge of the language as a whole. This is particularly true when the emphasis is on comprehension (i.e. meaning) rather than grammar;

b) listening and reading are the most stable skills (i.e. they withstand best the passage of time, especially when the exposure to the language outside the class is limited);

c) listening and reading skills can be maintained autonomously by students given the appropriate self-study material and guidance.

In order to implement this type of second language acquisition, and in accordance with paragraph 4 of the resolution, recent approaches in syllabus design and teaching methodologies have been continually explored and adapted to the needs of language training in the United Nations.

For all the reasons outlined above, it seems clear that the level of second language competence predicated by this resolution is not only economic, realistic and pedagogically sound, but also appears to be, at least in theory, a viable and sustainable means for promoting language learning in an international organization such as the U.N.

The questions that are probably on your minds are: how is this actually working? and what has been the impact of language training on the linguistic skills and communicative behaviour of staff members, and particularly the professionals among them?

These and many other questions are legitimate and should be asked in any language planning situation. Answers to some of these questions may be found in various reports presented to the General Assembly on language training. I have included in the bibliography the two most important ones.

Just to give you a general idea of what the answer to one of the above questions might be, I would like to quote from the conclusion of the second and most recent report. The first paragraph of the conclusion states "it is clear that undeniable progress has been achieved in increasing the linguistic skills of professional staff subject to geographic distribution, thus improving linguistic balance in the Secretariat. At the same time, it would seem that the language incentives as currently applied have not yet fully met their objective."

What this conclusion shows is that success in implementing language planning policies, like in any endeavour that aims to redirect habits and prescribe new behaviours, is attributed to a large extent to non-linguistic variables. Therefore, no matter how effective our language training in the Secretariat may be, such training can achieve a greater measure of success only if it took into account the socio-linguistic values and attitudes that surround the language learning situation in the United Nations, and particularly in its Secretariat. Only then can we hope to identify what constitutes an incentive to language learning in such a multilingual setting.

Continual efforts are being deployed to identify and analyze all the relevant variables that affect language learning in international environment. Progress in this area is likely to make our language training more effectively responsive both to the needs of the Organization and those of the learners.

CONCLUSION

What I have attempted to convey to you is that language planning and particularly language training in the United Nations, not unlike other endeavours this world body engages into, is constrained and at the same time motivated, by many political and sociolinguistic variables. I was able to allude to only a few of them, in the hope that future studies might analyze their impact on language learning in international organizations.

NOTES

(1) A working language differs from an official language in that more documents appear in a working language than in an official language. An official language is a language in which interpretation is secured and in which most official documents are translated. A working language is a language in which organizational business is conducted and into which most documents are translated. (see "Organizational vs. Individual Bilingualism: The Case of the United Nations" by Marie-Josée Jastrab, in the Report of the Second Annual Conference of the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems, New York, December 15, 1983.

(2) In the United Nations Secretariat there are two types of professional staff. Those who are occupying language specific posts, such as interpreters, translators, proofreaders, verbatim reporters, etc...; and those occupying posts subject to geographic distribution in such occupations as administration, economy, statistics, library science, etc...

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ANNEX 1

General Assembly Resolution 2 (I)

2. RULES OF PROCEDURE CONCERNING LANGUAGES

Resolved that the General Assembly:

(a) adopts rules of procedure concerning languages in conformity with the rules herewith presented (annex);

(b) recommends to the other organs of the United Nations the adoption of language rules in conformity with the rules herewith presented;

(c) recommends that the Secretary-General makes a thorough enquiry into the question of the installation of telephonic systems of interpretation and, if possible, arranges for the establishment of such a system for the second part of the first session.

Twenty-first plenary meeting. 1 February 1946.

ANNEX

1. In all organs of the United Nations, other than the International Court of Justice, Chinese, French, English, Russian and Spanish shall be the official languages, and English and French the working languages.

2. Speeches made in either of the working languages shall be interpreted into the other working language.

3. Speeches made in any of the other three official languages shall be interpreted into both working languages.

4. Any representative may make a speech in a language other than the official languages. In this case he shall himself provide for interpretation into one of the working languages. Interpretation into the other working language by an interpreter of the Secretariat may be based on the interpretation given the first working language.

5. Verbatim records shall be drawn up in the working languages. A translation of the whole or part of any verbatim record into any of the other official lauguages shall be furnished if requested by any delegation.

6. Summary records shall be drawn up as soon as possible in the official languages.

7. The *Journals* of the organs of the United Nations shall be issued in the working languages.

8. All resolutions and other important documents shall be made available in the official languages. Upon the request of any representative, any other document shall be made available in any or all of the official languages.

9. Documents of the organs of the organs of the United Nations shall, if those organs so decide, be published in any languages other than the official languages.

ANNEX II

The General Assembly,

Recalling its resolutions 2241 B (XXI) of 20 December 1966 and 2359 B (XXII) of 19 December 1967 relating to the use of the working languages and to the establishment of a language bonus, and in particular paragraph 3 (a) of resolution 2359 B (XXII) concerning the need to ensure a linguistic balance within the Secretariat,

Having considered the relevant part of the report (A/7334) submitted by the Secretary-General pursuant to resolution 2359 B (XXII),

Having noted with satisfaction the measures recommended by the Secretary-General in his report with a view to bringing about a broad expansion of the language training programme already conducted by the Secretariat and ensuring its effectiveness by incentives in the matter of the promotion of staff in the Professional category subject to geographical distribution (*ibid.*, paras. 52-60 and 88-95),

1. *Requests* the Secretary-General, with a view to ensuring a linguistic balance, to take the following steps:

(a) From 1 January 1970 the acceptable minimum requirement at the moment of recruitment will be:

(i) Ability to use one of the working languages of the Secretariat, or

(ii) Ability to use one of the working languages of a United Nations Organ in the case of staff members recruited for one of the sections of the Secretariat working for that organ, it being understood that such staff members will not be appointed on a permanent basis, or that their fixed-term engagement will not be extended beyond two years, until they are able to work in one of the working languages of the Secretariat,

(b) From 1 January 1972:

(i) All promotions form one grade to another, from P-1 to D-2 inclusive, for staff subject to geographical distribution will be conditional upon adequate and confirmed knowledge of a second language; nevertheless, the

Secretary-General may authorize the promotion of the staff members specified above who do not fulfil that condition if he deems it necessary for the proper functioning of the Secretariat; the Secretary-General shall indicate what action has been taken in this respect in his annual report to the General Assembly on personnel questions;

(ii) Adequate and confirmed knowledge of a second language will permit more rapid passage through the steps within each grade, from P-1 to D-2 inclusive, for the same staff, in this case the interval between steps being ten months instead of twelve; a reduction by the same proportion will be applied for grades where the interval between each step is at present more than twelve months;

2. *Decides* that confirmation of the knowledge of a second language shall be the obtaining of the language proficiency certificate as at present awarded by the United Nations, that is, by boards consisting of language teachers; since the end in view is essentially to provide understanding of the written and the spoken language, the language training courses will have to be modified accordingly;

3. *Decides* that the second language, knowledge of which will be confirmed by the award of the language proficiency certificate, shall be one of the official languages listed in rule 51 of the rules of procedure of the General Assembly;

4. *Urges* the Secretary-General to take all the necessary steps to enable all the staff members specified above who so request to take language courses and to ensure that modern teaching methods are used as widely as possible;

5. *Invites* the Secretary-General to report to the General Assembly at its twenty-eighth session, in 1973, on the action taken on the present resolution, in order to enable the Assembly to take, if necessary, whatever steps it may deem appropriate, bearing in mind the present resolution and resolutions 2241 B (XXI) and 2359 B (XXII), it being understood that the application of the language bonus established by the Assembly in resolution 2359 B (XXII) remains in suspense.

PAPERS FROM SESSION II

Humphrey Tonkin (President, Potsdam College of the State University of New York; Chair, Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems)

LANGUAGE PLANNING, PLANNED LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Abstract

Official multilingualism in international conferences and international organizations has a relatively brief history. the turning point was the Conference of Versailles and the adoption of two working languages by the League of Nations. Since its foundation, there has been a proliferation of working languages at the United Nations. The number is now up to six, and there is a direct connection between the relative power of a given country or group of countries and the likelihood that its language will be used at the UN. At various times, Esperanto has been proposed as a solution to language proliferation, first in the League of Nations, and, lately, at the United Nations. The latest proposal calls not for the exclusion of other languages, but for the increased use of Esperanto as a bridge between other languages.

The complexity of the subject and the brevity of my time dictate that I provide only the briefest of introductions to my topic: prolegomena, as it were, to a study of the organization of language for international use and of planned languages in an international context.

Official multilingualism in international conferences and international organizations has a relatively brief history, reaching back a little over 50 years. The turning point was the Conference of Versailles of 1919, at which the victorious allies were evenly divided between a preference for French (France and Italy) and English (Britain and the United States). Hitherto international conferences had normally been conducted in French, and the business of international organizations had also been carried on in that language. Behind the preference for French lay two centuries or more of educational and diplomatic tradition, with French as the standard second language in schools in most of Europe or beyond and the standard language of culture for the so-called civilized world. Above all, French was the language of diplomacy, and a normal part of the attainments of the diplomat was fluency in that language.

This is not to suggest that all, or even most, international communication took place during the nineteenth century through the medium of French. Just as in the international market places of much of Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Dutch was the standard language, so in nineteenth-century Europe to an increasing degree English was becoming the major commercial language. What happened at Versailles in 1919 was the recognition that the language of communication among the leaders of the countries involved should not necessarily be the language of diplomacy but might also be the language of commerce. In effect, professional diplomats and statesmen, formally indistinguishable from one another, parted company at Versailles. Decisive in this respect was the participation at Versailles of the United States.

Here and in the subsequently established League of Nations we witness the gradual emergence of a new type of diplomat: one linked not with a national but with an international environment, practicing multilateral rather than bilateral diplomacy. We also witness the emergence of a new type of civil servant, serving an international rather than a national bureaucracy.

The languages chosen at Versailles, while they were native to three of the participants, could be regarded as languages of wider use. Three languages enjoyed wide international currency during this period: English, French and German. Of the three, German probably had the least international currency, being confined largely to scientists and intellectuals. More importantly, the German language was vanquished with Germany, at least for the time being. The languages that emerged as official and working languages at the League of Nations were English and French. It was a reasonable expectation on the part of the founders of the League that all participants in its deliberations would have a working knowledge of one of these languages or the other.

With the establishment of the United Nations in 1945, the same principle as had been applied at the League of Nations was applied again: two languages were chosen as working languages. Again they were English and French. While the choice of these languages was logical enough (they were widely used as second languages), it was abundantly evident from the outset (as had been evident in the League of Nations) that native speakers of English and French enjoyed considerable advantages over native speakers of other languages. While the purpose behind the choice of English and French was, then, their wide distribution, in practice the "owners" of these means of communication were in a position of superiority. As a kind of recognition of these linguistic advantages, a system of "official" languages was introduced in parallel with the system of working languages, and the languages of the other permanent members of the Security Council, Russian and Chinese, were made official languages, along with Spanish. Thus the notion of a special body, the Security Council, concerned with matters of war and peace and able to wield considerable influence over the organization as a whole, was reproduced in the linguistic régime. The "communication council," as it were--owners the means of communication within the organization--imposed the languages of the victorious powers, the Soviet Union, China, Britain, the United States, and France. Spanish was added to the group for another reason: it was an important regional language and, in the early years of the United Nations, Spanish-speaking countries commanded a considerable number of votes in the General Assembly.

The following years witnessed a gradual erosion of the distinction between working language and official language, and gradually the official languages of the organization acquired the status of working languages (Spanish 1948, Russian 1968, Chinese 1973, Arabic 1973). With the advent of Arabic as a contender for working language status, similar arguments to those used for the officialization of Spanish were used: the status of Arabic as a regional language, and the influential voting bloc that it represented. There was no appeal to the principle of wider communication. While such an appeal could be made with Russian (certain Eastern European countries, along with Mongolia, used Russian as a means of communication in the United Nations even though it was not native to them), it did not hold for Chinese (no member-state uses Chinese in this way), nor does it hold for Spanish (today even Brazil uses English). Hence the principle, still alive in the League of Nations, that the languages used in international organizations should be those whose vehicular (second-language) use was as wide as possible had given way because of the advantages enjoyed by the native speakers of those vehicular languages. Had the French, through a kind of self-denying ordinance, undertaken to use English and the British and Americans to use French, this native advantage, which caused the unravelling of the international linguistic system, might have been avoided, but so fantastical an idea was, so far as I know, not proposed at the time.

What was proposed, back in the 1920's, was the use of Esperanto as the working language of the League of Nations. The history of this proposal, and its narrow failure to win adoption, has been told many times. I will not repeat the details here. Behind the proposal lay a very simple principle: Esperanto is a fully developed, easily learned language which is native to no one. The question of ownership, the major stumbling block in the development of a rational language policy, would have been solved at

a single stroke through the adoption of Esperanto. What defeated the proposal was not skepticism about the effectiveness of Esperanto as a means of communication, though there may have been some of this. It was the opposition of one of the "owners" of the means of communication, France, which lobbied vigorously against the proposal and ultimately defeated it. The only small consolation prize for the advocates of Esperanto was the decision by the League to propose Esperanto to the Universal Telegraphic Union as a "clear" language. This decision, taken some sixty years ago, in September 1924, was ratified by the Union at its world conference in Paris in 1925.

The troubles of the League, coupled with the troubles of the Esperanto movement in the late 1920's and in the 1930's, meant that no further attention was given to Esperanto after the failure of the vote in its support. When, after the Second World War, representations were made to the United Nations on behalf of Esperanto, diplomatic support was far weaker than it had been in the 1920's. This, coupled with the fluidity of the language situation in the United Nations, meant that an early petition, presented to the UN at Lake Success, was shunted aside to Unesco, where only the persistence of Esperanto supporters themselves resulted in a resolution by the General Conference, meeting in Montevideo in 1954, which noted "the results attained by Esperanto in the field of international intellectual relations and in the rapprochement of the peoples of the world." The period since 1954 has been marked by occasional expressions of interest in Esperanto by numbers of international organizations, among them the European Parliament, the European Community and Unesco, but few concrete advances have been registered.

The principal obstacle in the way of Esperanto is not any major weakness in the language itself. Today Esperanto is spoken and used in at least one hundred countries in all parts of the world. There are Esperanto organizations in over sixty countries. Books in Esperanto number in the tens of thousands, and the literature is augmented at the rate of 150 or more titles per year. Some one hundred periodicals are published in Esperanto. There are regular radio broadcasts, the language is taught in numbers of schools in various parts of the world, and tens of thousands of people per year participate in international conferences and meetings in which the working language is Esperanto. This large and growing movement has, however, had only limited success in bringing its existence to the attention of the larger public. Public relations activities are minimal and underfinanced. Teaching and publicity materials are inadequate or insufficient. Currently Esperanto lacks the political authority to project itself on to the international scene. Numerically, however, it is probably stronger than it has ever been, and relatively little would have to change in the Esperanto movement to make the language a significant and viable alternative for use in international organizations.

The signs of change are already present. The past twenty years have witnessed two significant changes in the situation of Esperanto. First, its geographical spread has moved vigorously beyond Europe into India, Pakistan and, most explosively, Iran. It has been strong in Japan for many years and is increasingly present in Africa and China. Its territory now covers the realms of all major language groups, not simply those of Europe.

Second, scholars from outside the Esperanto movement as well as within have begun to take a much more active interest in Esperanto. Twenty years ago the number of scholarly articles on aspects of Esperanto published in a given year could be counted on the fingers of, at most, two hands. Today, the MLA Annual Bibliography regularly carries 200 or more items on Esperanto yearly, including numbers of book-length works. Scholars are looking at Esperanto and expressing an interest in what they see.

Some have proposed Esperanto as a potential means for the mechanical manipulation of language, for example as a bridge language for computerized translation. One of the papers at the present conference deals with this topic. The Universal Esperanto Association, meanwhile, has espoused the so-called Harry Plan, named after Ralph L. Harry, its originator, former Permanent Representative of Australia to the United Nations. This plan is based on the hypothesis that relative linguistic equality can be achieved in the United Nations by planned multilingualism on a considerably broader base than that now in existence. Current practice assumes that language equality <u>is</u> desirable on a limited basis, hence the strict policies for the equal treatment of working languages in the translation and interpretation services. The Harry Plan calls for a massive <u>expansion</u> of multilingualism in some spheres and a massive <u>reduction</u> in others. The Plan proposes the following steps:

1. Esperanto is accorded similar status to the official and working languages at the UN in the area of language training. Employees of the UN can learn Esperanto and gain financial benefits from doing so. Special emphasis is placed on passive, reading knowledge of the language, which can be acquired in a matter of weeks.

2. Esperanto becomes the language of record for certain limited categories of documents of relatively narrow circulation. These documents are translated out of their originals into Esperanto only. This process is gradually expanded as Esperanto becomes more generally known by members of the Secretariat and missions.

3. As savings are effected through this process, they are reinvested in the interpretation service. Interpretation into Esperanto becomes available on a limited basis.

4. In due course, occasional meetings carry interpretation <u>only</u> into Esperanto, but more languages are permitted as languages of debate, i.e., Esperanto interpretation is provided out of as many as eight or ten languages.

5. Ultimately this becomes standard practice, with interpretation only into Esperanto, but out of a growing number of languages, perhaps as many as thirty, covering eighty or ninety percent of the member-states, who are thereby empowered to use their own languages as languages of debate.

This system is based, then, on a bipolar principle: expansion of the languages used in some spheres and contraction in others. It will not produce major savings in the translation and interpretation services, but it will redistribute the resources to produce greater equality with little or no diminution of communication power. Except in so far as they enjoy

something of a monopoly at present, this system does not threaten the existing working languages, which would continue in use but would now be joined by additional languages as channels of communication are freed up.

Behind the Harry Plan lies a notion of radical realignment of linguistic resources within the United Nations - the kind of realignment that would best issue from a decision to reassess the function of language services, indeed to ask some questions about the purpose of multilingualism in the international organization. Whether such a radical realignment and reassessment is possible in today's climate is anyone's guess. Such a return to first principles has not taken place since Versailles. Today it may be too threatening to all concerned. While the present way of proceeding is little short of a miracle of linguistic virtuosity, perhaps the undeniable talent in the language services could be devoted in this way to an expansion of multilingualism and hence language equality.

At the heart of the issue lies the question of English. Should we conclude that we are currently in transition between the dominance of French and the dominance of English in international relations, and that the entire apparatus of translation and interpretation and language services will in due course be swept away? There is some evidence to support such a view. Or should we work for a more comprehensive alternative to English as medium of international communication? If we favor the latter course of action, no single language will do the job. We must look for a coordinated multilingual solution with a neutral, and hence disinterested, language at its heart. A divided approach, with the owners of each language working for their own advantage, is insufficient to resist the privileged status of English and hence the exacerbation of inequality in international linguistic relations.

Failing such a thorough reassessment of the language situation in international organizations, a gradual effort to increase the use of Esperanto might well prove possible, primarily in order to provide certain minimal language services to those who currently have no direct stake in the status quo (a large minority of member-states). Such an effort, if carried out on an experimental basis, might in turn lead to broader use of Esperanto as its efficacy became evident. Given the current interest in Esperanto among those concerned with machine translation, such experimental use would seem to present interesting possibilities.

Decisions on language use at the United Nations and other international organizations are very much a phenomenon of language planning. There has always been a gap between the stated motives for the introduction of new languages and the actual motives (if the latter can ever be defined). "Improved communication" may mean nothing more than "improved communication for us," and "language equality" may mean nothing more than "language equality for us." It is doubtful whether full linguistic communication in a spirit of equality can be fully achieved, but it is a worthy goal. Working within the constraints of language policy, the language services at the United Nations seek to achieve it. But the very constraints themselves have little logic on their side. They are the province of the student of language and power, not the student of language and communication.

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PRESERVING MULTILINGUALISM IN THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

On 14 October 1982, the European Parliament adopted a resolution "on the multilingualism of the European Community," which among other things stressed "the absolute equality between the Community languages. . . at all meetings of Parliament and its bodies" and insisted that any measures to cut the costs of the Community's language services must be compatible with this equality.

The immediate background to this resolution was the publicity given to certain suggestions for reducing the costs of translation and interpreting in the Community by reducing the number of languages used for many purposes. Since language costs in the European Community are undoubtedly higher than in any other international organization, it is understandable that there is concern about the expense. What is interesting, however, is the fact that, as this Parliament resolution shows, the European institutions are particularly aware of the desirability, indeed the necessity, of preserving multilingualism. This awareness has developed steadily since the creation of the first European Community and has in recent years been reflected in certain aspects of the Community budget.

To go back to the beginning, when after the Second World War thoughts turned to the unification of Europe, the language problem was not a major concern. The first European Community, the European Coal and Steel Community, was established by the Treaty of Paris in 1952. This treaty was drafted (and presumably to a large extent negotiated) in French, and its French version is ultimately the only authoritative one. In implementing the Treaty, however, the Community could only function on a multilingual basis. For what the Treaty of Paris created was a supranational body, administered by a High Authority with the power to implement its decisions with the direct force of law in all the Member States. From the purely legal point of view, therefore, this High Authority had to enact its decisions simultaneously in all the official languages of those Member States.

There was also the more human aspect of the demands for equality of the various language communities. French as the sole language was unacceptable to the Flemish half of Belgium, and if French and Dutch were to be used, the Italians and Germans could not be expected to abandon the use of their languages in Community affairs.

Accordingly, the next stage in the development of the European Community was more overtly multilingual. The 1957 Treaties of Rome, establishing the European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Community, were signed in equally authentic French, German, Dutch and Italian versions, although it must be said that the internal workings of the institutions were, and to a certain extent still are, predominantly French-based. Thus, by the time the first enlargement of the Community increased the languages from four to six with the addition of English and Danish, the Community institutions were well on the way to becoming by far the world's largest employer of translators and interpreters.

Now, with the entry of Greece at the beginning of 1981, we have a ten-member Community with seven languages, and there is the prospect of the accession of Spain and Portugal, bringing the number of languages to nine in 1986 or soon after. Already various features of Community language policy are taking account of this future enlargement, while on the other hand there are mounting pressures, mainly of an economic or budgetary nature, to limit the cost of the language services.

The peculiar nature of the European Community institutions means, for example, that the distinction between official and working languages applied in various UN organizations cannot be used as a means of limiting the scope or cost of the language services. The seven official languages, Danish, Dutch, English, French, German and Italian, are the ones actually used on a systematic basis for many purposes. This also means that, unlike at the UN, there is a direct link between the number of working languages and the number of Member States. When Greece was about to join the Community, the Community expressed doubts in some quarters about whether it was really necessary to give Greek the same status as the other languages, but in fact the addition of Greek was an automatic consequence of the nature of the Community. Similarly, the accession of Spain and Portugal will mean that their languages will automatically be used in Community affairs.

It would be wrong, however, to assume from this that every scrap of paper circulating among Community officials exists in seven language versions or that every word uttered in the vast number of conferences, negotiating sessions or other meetings of various committees, working parties and so on is interpreted into all the other languages. There is a large measure of pragmatism. As a rough guide, the greater the political importance of the meeting or body, or of the subject involved, the greater the number of languages actually used. Thus we can see why the Parliament resolution mentioned at the beginning refers only to multilingualism in the conduct of Parliament's own business. Parliament is an eminently political body which jealously guards the right of each MEP to use his own language. It would be an infringement of democratic principles if the effectiveness of elected representatives depended on their proficiency in particular languages. Thus the proceedings of Parliament and the working documents for the sessions systematically use all the languages.

Similarly, the deliberations of the Council of Ministers depend on the use of all the languages, and over the years there have been a number of instances where this or that delegation has found it necessary to record in the minutes its insistence that this "régime intégral" be maintained. In the day-to-day running of the Community, however, things are rather different.

While strict equality between the languages is maintained, of course, for the legislation and communications published in the Official Journal, for various other publications and for certain important meetings, there are many activities run by the Commission of the European Communities in which at most three languages are used, English, French and German. This applies, for example, to large numbers of of experts working on various specialized subjects, meeting in connection with Community policies. In many cases the language used simply reflects the practice worldwide in

particular technical fields, but with a strong tendency to prefer English. In the field of scientific and technical information and documentation (STID), languages other than English and French have an almost completely passive role, but even a passive role is of some importance, since the principle is maintained that Community bodies will accept communications from national organizations or from individuals in any of the languages. As a member of the English translation service, I find that a fair amount of my work is concerned with documents of this kind originating outside the Community institutions.

In this short paper there is no room for a more detailed description of language use in the Community institutions, nor is that really the subject of today's conference. What it adds up to, as I said before, is that the Community's army of translators and interpreters is by far the largest in the world. I can give a precise figure only for the Commission, which budgeted for 1,166 posts in the language service (total of translators and interpreters) in 1983, about twice as many as in 1972. The Commission, as the body which implements Community policies, has the great bulk of the staff, but Parliament and the Council also have three or four hundred linguists each, and there are also the smaller staffs of the Court of Justice, the Court of Auditors, the Economic and Social Committee and the European Investment Bank, so that the total for the Community institutions as a whole approaches 2,000.

The language services are thus an obvious target for economizing in times of budgetary restraint, though it must be said that the Community's administrative costs as a whole are only a very small percentage of the enormous sums spent on supporting Community agriculture, or even on other less costly Community policies. One also often sees rather exaggerated figures in the press for the proportion of administrative expenditure devoted to translation and interpreting. I think it worth mentioning that the figure I quoted above for Commission language staff works out at 12% of a staff total of 9,683, though the proportionate cost of the whole language service is obviously higher than that, since translators and interpreters are all in the top staff grades.

Be that as it may, the budgetary situation in recent years has meant that there have been strong pressures to limit or even reduce the costs of multilingualism. In view of the increase from four to seven languages and the expansion of Community activities in so many fields, the Commission's language staff might have been expected to increase far more than twofold over the past decade or so. What has happened, of course, is that efforts have been made, on the one hand, to cut back on translation work by applying stricter criteria for selecting documents for translation, and, on the other, to increase the efficiency of the language service.

A large part of this drive to put a brake on the escalation of translation costs has naturally centered on the opportunities offered by new technologies, though the benefit from some projects will be felt in the long term rather than right away. This also fits in with Community policies in other fields, particularly information technology. It can now be seen that the Community's approach to multilingualism is in fact twofold: on the one hand, there is the need to cope with the institutions' internal requirements for documents and services in various languages,

while on the other hand the Community has in recent years become increasingly interested in multilingual problems of a more general nature.

Nineteen eighty-five will see the end of the Third Community Action Programme on Multilingualism, and work is already being done to draw up the Fourth Programme. The first three Programmes, starting in 1977, have seen the development of a number of applications which were initially linked to the European Commission's own needs but are now increasingly being expanded for general use. This ties in with the Community's commitment to the development of data banks and networks, with Euronet/Diane, and more broadly to the promotion of European industries in the field of data processing and information technology, where the Community adopted its first multiannual programme for the period 1979-83 and has now recently launched the more ambitious ESPRIT programme for research and development in information technology.

These applications of new technology to the problems of multilingualism fall into two groups: actual machine translation and other EDP aids, such as terminology banks and thesauri. There is of course no direct correlation between funds committed and results achieved, but it may be of interest to note that the average expenditure on the first multilingualism action programmes was of the order of 700,000 ECU per year, rising to well over 1,000,000 ECU in the current Third Programme. In view of the proposals now under discussion, expenditure on the Fourth Programme is likely to show a further substantial rise.

In 1976, the European Commission started developing for its own needs the SYSTRAN System, devised in the United States by Dr. Toma and first operated for processing Russian texts for the USAF. Starting with English-French and then French-English, development has continued steadily, with an English-Italian experiment being started in 1981, and more recently English-German and German-English. Further language pairs (French-German, later English-Dutch and French-Dutch) are planned and serious consideration is being given to developing SYSTRAN for obtaining translations "for information" out of the "minor" languages, Danish and Greek.

That said, there have in recent years been too many rash reports that SYSTRAN is "operational" with the Commission. It would be fairer to say that a number of pilot applications are under way, and there is now thought to be considerable potential for wider application within the Commission's departments. Monthly throughput so far this year amounts to about 7,000 pages per year, which is really only a molehill compared with the whole mountain of Community documents. Other organizations--for example, the Xerox Corporation--are apparently making much more use of SYSTRAN, in volume terms than is the Commission, but for rather different purposes. Without dwelling too much on the thorny question of translation quality, the pilot applications so far have been divided between use of machine translation as an aid to the human translator in producing output of normal quality ("pré-traduction automatique") and the provision of a factually accurate but unpolished version for information purposes only. The latter application seems to have the widest potential, provided the requesting departments clearly understand the nature of the product.

While SYSTRAN is currently the Commission's major contribution to the development of machine translation--with a view, as with other projects, not to eliminating the need for human translators but to increasing the amount of information readily available in various languages, it has also embarked on an evaluation exercise with the LOGOS machine translation system, with a view to possible further development in parallel with SYSTRAN. And more importantly there is the EUROTRA project, which is a long-term undertaking with the aim of a fully multilingual system rather than SYSTRAN's accumulation of language pairs. It should be stressed, however, that EUROTRA is still only at the theoretical development stage, involving cooperation between university departments and other academica in the various Member States. Some 60% of the cost of this project is being met out of the Community budget, the rest being contributed by the Member States themselves.

Mention should also be made here of the multilingual DLT project produced by the Dutch company BSO, for which the Community funded the initial feasibility study. This project was in fact submitted, however, in connection with the overall programme for information technology rather than under the multilingualism programme, and the follow-up to the feasibility study is being financed from national rather than Community sources.

The other major field of multilingual Community activity is terminology. The European Parliament has a small terminology service to assist its translators, which has produced over the years a steady flow of glossaries on Community affairs and other subjects with a more systematic coverage of all the Community languages than is found in other dictionaries available on the market. The Commission has a small army of terminologists who, together with those working on machine translation and other applications, are now part of the new TAI (Terminologie et Applications Informatiques) Division.

For the translator working into a "major" language, the terminology bureau have the main function of providing documentation to solve translation problems, but in many cases, particularly for the less widely used languages, the terminologist must also guide the creation of new terms. This is particularly apparent with the accession of new Member States to the Community. Since the Community is a unique organization, it has created its own extensive vocabulary on many matters, and even such a widely-used language as English has not always been easy to adapt to the vocabulary created in French and in the other original Community languages. I and other translators who joined the organization some years after British accession in 1973 often have cause to regret that better, or at least different, solutions were not found at the outset.

The major terminological development in the Community in the past few years has been the Eurodicautom data base, which has now been made available to outside users via the Euronet/DIANE network. Now that log on procedures have been simplified and the stock of terms is building up, Eurodicautom is being used more and more regularly by translators as a source of terms. At present it contains 350,000 terminological records and 80,000 abbreviations, but much remains to be done to increase its usefulness. Six Community languages plus Spanish and Portuguese are

covered, with Greek being introduced shortly once the system has been adapted to accommodate the different character sets, but the coverage is very unequal from one language to another. On average each entry contains terms in about four languages. Here too it is worth noting the effect of the Community's commitment to language equality, developing the system to suit the language (e.g., Greek alphabet) rather than making do with the constraints of a technically simpler system.

The Commission also has plans for making a more comprehensive collection of terminological material from other sources to be made available via Euronet/DIANE, since studies have shown that there are large amounts of material, at least in English, French and German, which it would be worth making more widely available.

Another important sector of Community multilingual activity is the production of thesauri. The Commission's departments have been instrumental in producing the ASTUTE software, which has been used to produce or update a number of multilingual thesauri which are now being made available to data-base users. Community activities in this field have involved cooperation with various other international organizations.

The transfer of information between languages is in fact one of the major concerns of the Commission's Directorate-General for the Innovation Market and Innovation, and to round off this all too brief, and thus certainly inadequate, survey mention should be made of the "Euroarticles" scheme, whereby selected articles of scientific interest published in one Community language are translated by the Commission's translation service with a view to their being published in other countries.

In the longer term, the Community is also turning its eyes to non-Community, non-European languages, seeking ways of making scientific and technical information published in languages like Japanese more readily accessible for European scientists and industrialists. The linguistic diversity in Europe is often seen as a handicap because of the extra costs it involves, but if it provides an incentive to produce multilingual tools which preserve this valuable diversity and at the same time widen our horizons, then this handicap can be turned into an advantage.

ANNEX I

RESOLUTION

On the Multilingualism of the European Community

The European Parliament,

-- having regard to Article 217 of the EEC Treaty,

-- having regard to Articles 1 and 6 of Council Regulation No 1 of 15 April 1958 as amended by the 1972 and 1979 Acts of Accession,

-- having regard to Rule 61 of its Rules of Procedure,

-- having regard to the report of the Committee on the Rules of Procedure and Petitions and the opinions of the Political Affairs Committee and the Committee on Youth, Culture, Education, Information and Sport (Doc. 1-306/82),

A. whereas any limitation of the number of languages used by the European Parliament would interfere with the democratic nature of Parliament,

B. whereas discrimination against certain languages in favour of others in the European Parliament would be an infringement of the democratic voting rights of Community citizens as they should be able to elect their representatives exclusively on the basis of political criteria and of who will best represent their interests, without any additional linguistic criteria being laid down,

C. whereas all Members of Parliament are entitled to equal treatment irrespective of their active or passive knowledge of languages,

D. whereas, although the costs entailed by the multilingualism of the Community are considerable, they nevertheless represent only about 2% of the Community's total budget,

1. Unequivocally affirms that the official languages and the working languages of the Community institutions are Danish, Dutch, English, French, German, Greek and Italian;

2. Confirms the rule that there is to be absolute equality between the Community languages, whether used actively or passively, in writing or orally, at all meetings of Parliament and its bodies;

3. Supports any measure to speed up its work and to effect savings in connection with the Community's language arrangements, provided such measures are compatible with the principle that all the languages have equal status;

4. Urges, in particular, continued research into machine translation systems and other technological possibilities which may reduce costs;

5. Instructs its President to forward this resolution to the Commission and the Council.

Thursday, 14 October 1982

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THE EFFICIENT PLANNING OF CONFERENCE INTERPRETATION

Speaking of the efficient planning of conference interpretation, I believe I should guard against inefficiency in my own house and, wishing therefore to forestall any later regrets, I beg to start with a definition and three footnotes.

The definition, admittedly oversimplified, draws the distinction between interpretation and translation:

> Interpreters speak and translators write. At the UN in New York, these are two separate functions, although they are not always kept distinct elsewhere, and, be it said from the outset, proficiency in one function does not guarantee adequacy in the other.

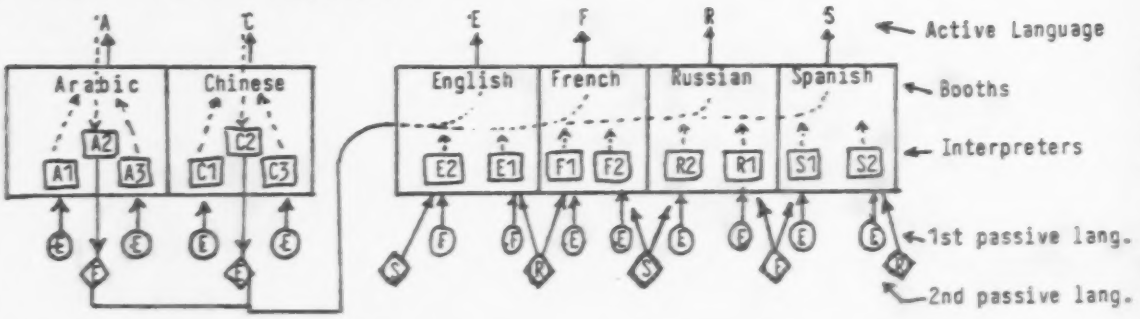
As to the three footnotes, they may break a rule that is dear to some interpreters and that precludes lifting the veil of mystery that we are secretly fond of weaving around our work. So, let my peers forgive me! I shall tell all and, borrowing half-a-leaf from the reporter's notebook, give you the who, what and how of interpreters:

> Who are they? they are a group of trained professionals, mostly registered with an association, numbering between 1600 and 2000 in the world, all languages included, who are either employed by organizations or governments (the UN employs about 20 interpreters per language, some 120 in all), or who work on a "freelance" basis, either under short-term contracts for conferences, specific events like the Olympic Games, special negotiations, etc., or under longer-term contracts, as they would for the United Nations General Assembly, reinforcing the house-teams when the work-load is heavy.
>
> What are they? One would expect them to be angels of mercy, ministering to those who could not otherwise understand each other. Well, angels they are, occasionally. At other times, they are mere tools in the hands of others who play all the subtle games that language allows. After all, we know that overseas visitors shop and play quite competently in New York town without benefit of interpretation, yet interpreters are called upon to service their business or political meetings for reasons of prestige, one-upmanship, or even for the sake of keeping order at sessions likely to go awry should some over-eager participants jeopardize a "deal" through linguistic vanity.

And it is in this last area that interpreters are occasionally most clearly vindicated. Such was the case in 1980, when the high cost of language services was the subject of debate at the European community. Illustrating the need for language services after all, the BBC reported from Brussels that some cost-conscious delegates had waived interpretation at a meeting where the British representative gave an account of the arduous and acrimonious budget negotiations just concluded between Mrs. Thatcher's government and the Community. "It was like shooting rapids in a canoe," he said. Whereupon, a critical delegate seized on the metaphor and mockingly declared it was small wonder the talks had been so unpleasant. How irresponsible, at such a time, to think of going after rabbits, and who

but an eccentric would shoot from a canoe? (BBC World Service broadcast, August 1980, reprinted in The Listener).

How do they work? Three types of work may be required of a Conference interpreter: a) Whispering to one or two delegates, sitting on either side; b) Consecutive work, which consists of taking the place of the speaker and repeating from memory or notes the speech just heard in another language; and, most frequently, c) Simultaneous interpretation, which depends on engineers and equipment ranging from networks of wires permanently laid under the floor to pocket radio-receivers akin to walkie-talkies that pick up the broadcast inside and outside the hall, more discreet infra-red devices. The very use of equipment imposes certain constraints on the interpreter's work, as shown by the following outline of a system devised by the UN to handle 6 official languages:



The above diagram shows that interpreters work in teams and have strictly assigned duties and places. Although the individuals may not speak all tongues, the team covers all the meeting's language needs.

The four booths on the right (E,F,R,S) are staffed by interpreters working in pairs, speaking only their mother-tongue, now called more appropriately their main language. They "spell" each other for the first passive language, known to both, and complement each other for the second passive language (E1 handles F&R E2=F&S, whereas F1=E&R; F2=E&S &c.).

In each of the Arabic and Chinese booths, three interpreters work into and out of their main language (A1&3 work from E into A, whereas A2 works in reverse from A into E). The A2 position, called the "pivot," gives the clue to the other booths, who pick up "the relay" and the sound engineer makes the necessary adjustment to keep each language in its appropriate channel. (He must switch E from the A booth to the E booth's outgoing circuits.)

Interpreting is a taxing sport that cannot be practised without the proper dosage of rest. Should a meeting, therefore, extend beyond the canonic three hours, the maintenance of the quality of interpretation requires that a back-up crew be sent to relieve the original team.

> Finally, to dispel one more myth, interpreters work with or without documents, sometimes translating at sight from the written text of a speech, sometimes just reading a translation (called a "Van Doren," after the TV show of the 50s) prepared by the speaker. Mr. Gromyko, for example, furnishes an English and a French translation that the interpreters read while keeping a weather-eye (ear) out for the adlibs and last minute changes. To that extent, interpreters do rely on the translators' work, studying it and gathering information and vocabulary. They may suddenly, however, be required to tackle poetry, quips, proverbs, or witty rejoinders, thrown out unexpectedly. There are no reference books in the booth!
>
> And sometimes, on overseas missions, a Head of State's prepared statement, meant to be rushed to the interpreters, is sent out to "Los Traductores!" (cf. my opening definition).

The picture that emerges shows, on one side, a strange mixture of technical, linguistic, and team-management problems, requiring rigorous planning by the organizer, and on the other, interpreters steeling themselves, if I may be forgiven a simile often used by the performers, before the ordeal of stepping out on a tightrope with no plans, just conscientious preparation to serve as a balancing pole and professional training as a safety net.

The best way to show the various fields that language planning must cover may be to take as an example the Law of the Sea Conference, held in Jamaica during the Spring of 1984. Any figures quoted are only approximate and, needless to say, are not valid for planning purposes, except in a very general way. The Conference took place in Kingston, the capital of Jamaica and the seat of the Law of the Sea's ruling body, the Authority, established in that city by a resolution of the General Assembly. For 5 weeks the event brought together delegations from most of the 158 Member States of the United Nations and a sizeable contingent of UN Secretariat staff, including some 12 translators (2 per language) 12 conference typists and 57 interpreters (4 full teams) for the language department alone. The total cost ran to about one and one-half million dollars.

The first hurdle for the planners was the Budget. The responsible officer in the Law of the Sea Department at the Secretariat estimated his requirements and obtained an appropriation. Producing the required documents before the session, interpreting during the session, establishing records for publication after the meeting, and supplying support services such as typing, editing, printing, copying, distribution, references, audio functions, and conference room servicing, all had to be taken into account when establishing the budget. As for the European Community, so it is for the United Nations--the major costs of running the Organization lie in the language area.

At the United Nations, the matter of identifying the languages to be used at a Conference is quite simple, since the General Assembly has already settled the point as a matter of principle. Any of its subsidiary bodies, such as the Law of the Sea, conducts its proceedings in all six official languages, namely Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and

Spanish. Meetings are interpreted into and from these languages and documents are produced in these same languages. Summary records, if provided, are produced in these same versions. Even in the case of small conferences, where participants require only two or three working languages, there are other interested delegations, not members of the body, who are entitled to study its findings in translation and to send them back to their capitals for further consideration.

To consider interpretation alone, there was an insufficient number of permanent UN interpreters to staff the Conference in Jamaica and to maintain regular service at the head office. Freelance personnel had to be recruited. Professionals are not easy to find and, given the relatively small number of interpreters on the open market, the recruitment campaign had to start early. Moreover, since the freelance recruits make a commitment to the Organization, it is expected to commit itself by means of a contract, guaranteeing work for a specified period. Next, planning for consecutive interpretation was required. There usually are some press conferences and informal consultations to be serviced with consecutive interpretation. No special equipment is required, but the technique is different and the appropriate personnel should be included in the team.

The agenda was established early by the Preparatory Committee, drawing on past experience as to the amount of work that could be accomplished in the time allotted, the availability of required technical studies in their original and translated forms, and points of disagreement that might arise and cause a stalemate.

Generally, the planning of simultaneous meetings is based on careful assessment by the Secretariat of the number of members each delegation will send to the Conference. The General Assembly agrees to assume the cost of the airfare and per-diem allowance of one delegate per Member State, but some countries may not be able to afford the expense of sending more representatives. While holding fewer simultaneous meetings reduces the demand for interpreters, it may lengthen the session, with no saving achieved. Conversely, there is a risk of wasting resources if the number of simultaneous meetings drops below the programmed schedule through excessive pressure of work on the delegations. Unless the team of (staff-) interpreters freed by a permanently cancelled series of meetings is promptly sent home, a loss will immediately result.

With regard to the translation of documents at the law of the Sea Conference, a very significant saving was effected through the well-planned use of the Facsimile system. Texts for translation were sent back to New York via a telephone-photocopy hook-up that was also used to return translations to Kingston. By using head office translators, it was possible to send only a skeleton staff to Kingston.

Simultaneous interpretation was required, with all its attendant electronic equipment. This is normally provided in most modern halls as a matter of course. Experience has shown however, that such matters can never be taken for granted. One typical conference centre, recently built in the southern half of Africa, was said to have the right equipment and be ready for use until the advance team of UN engineers discovered that the wiring would only carry four channels against a requirement of six. It

appeared that the Conference would have to be moved to another country, until, at the last minute, a way was found to improvise a solution.

Even the matter of supplying from head office stock typewriters with Roman, Cyrillic, Chinese or Arabic characters that may not be available locally cannot be left to the last minute, since matching local current characteristics may pose an unexpected problem.

In general, for three meetings in the morning and three in the afternoon, allowing for a necessary rest period for each team, four teams are needed. To give an idea of the amounts involved in travel and per-diem costs only, the airfare from New York to Kingston amounted to $300 roundtrip and $100 per day covered the cost of a hotel room, meals and out of pocket expenses, ($216,600 for 57 interpreters, over 35 days).

In the case of the 1984 Spring Session of the Law of the Sea, 800 pages of documentation were distributed during the Conference. Local production by the skeleton staff was 250 pages. The remaining 550 pages were produced by the New York Offices and transmitted to and from the Conference site via the Facsimile circuit. Fares and per-diems for the skeleton staff of translators, salaries excluded, were $45,600, added to a like amount for the typists, for a total of $91,200. The Facsimile costs totalled $2,000, which included the rental of the machine, and of the telephone line. I understand present costs are even lower.

Once the general outline of the Conference was known, advance documentation was prepared by the Secretariat and sent for translation before the start of the conference. It served to inform delegations and governments of future discussion trends and thus enabled all interested parties to prepare their position papers for presentation during the opening general debate.

Interpreters assigned to the mission also studied the same documents and obtained from various sources advance information concerning the subject matter and the special vocabulary. Good planning and early arrangements were therefore important to allow for the timely preparation of the assigned language personnel.

As already mentioned, documents detailing the progress of negotiations are also prepared during meetings, and later records are sometimes required to help delegations make their reports to their Governments. At the United Nations head office verbatim records, established in all languages by the UN's verbatim reporters, may be produced for those important meetings designated by the General Assembly, with due regard to costs. Condensed reports, called Summary records, document the work of the General Assembly Main Committees, and that of any other body the General Assembly may select for such treatment.

Neither of these two kinds of papers, however, is used for conferences or seminars away from Head Office. In such cases, a subsequent report is prepared by the Rapporteur, or sometimes by the Secretariat. For example, following a Seminar on new and renewable sources of energy, at which the subject matter, presented by experts, was so diverse and condensed that non-technical participants had difficulty in following the oral

presentations, in all languages, a special report was prepared by the Secretariat.

I hope to have shown that planning is not merely a useful adjunct to Conference Interpretation, but an essential requirement of the service; without it, no team-work is possible. It is, moreover, a function that must be exercised efficiently, with heavy penalties attaching to miscalculations. The process is too complex to be sloughed off by the organizers and allowed to fall on various units that normally engage in other pursuits.

In fact, it warrants the establishment of a special planning unit, that undertakes to ensure that all "language" details receive due attention before, during and after the event. For this reason the United Nations Organization has thought it worthwhile to establish a Meetings Service, staffed by experienced people, who follow the development of language preparations and thus make an inestimable contribution to the success of its Conferences.

PAPERS FROM SESSION III

Roland Wesemaël (Director General, Special Translation Operations, Department of the Secretary of State, Canada)

SIMULTANEOUS SIGN LANGUAGE INTERPRETATION

A French version of this paper appeared in the journal Language Problems and Language Planning following the conference.

By way of introduction, let me first tell you how grateful and fearful I was when I received your invitation to speak on simultaneous sign language interpretation. When I was asked to indicate the title of my modest presentation, I should really have asked Mrs. Cestac to add a very important precision: "From a Layman's Perspective."

Please do not be afraid of a lecture: What you do not know, teach, as the saying goes. My ambition is very much different: I will not attempt to teach anything, especially not to this learned assembly. But I will try to convincingly plead for recognition of sign languages as languages in their own right, and for the recognition of visual language interpreters as siblings, as equals of their "vocal" counterparts.

When my department, in the Canadian Federal Administration, was made responsible for sign language interpretation, most of us knew little if anything on the subject. Most of us thought that the whole trick consisted of finger spelling and lipreading. In that, we were perfect examples of people judging before they know: Perfect examples of prejudiced individuals. To us, deafness was a handicap to be overcome by those affected by it; it was up to them to adjust to the rest of the world, and we saw ourselves as well-thinking, well intentioned individuals, ready to assist our less favored brothers and sisters and help them into our world. Today, those of us who are responsible for the provision of sign language interpretation in the Canadian Government have become opponents of the "do-gooders" we once almost were ourselves.

One of the most significant moves made by our government in 1979, on the specific recommendation of a Parliamentary Committee in their report, published under the title "Obstacles" was to make not the Department of Health and Welfare, but the Secretary of State's Translation Bureau responsible for sign language interpretation.

Perhaps it would be in order at this point to spell out the types of services we provide in Canada. I will largely quote from an article written by one of our freelance interpreters, Mr. Gordon Johnston, on the subject.

At the outset, I should probably remind you that the Canadian Constitution gives the Provinces jurisdiction over such important areas as education and the administration of justice. This will explain why the services we provide appear more limited in scope than, for instance, what is being provided in the U.S.

As soon as we were made responsible for this service, we undertook to establish the sign language service to parallel the spoken service which we maintain in Canada's official languages as well as in a variety of other languages. As you probably know, translation, interpretation and terminology at the federal level have been centralized since 1934 under the Secretary of State's Translation Bureau, which may be said to have a monopoly in this area.

Using the same methods as we did for oral interpretation, we set out to compile a list of interpreters across Canada -- Both for English and French (the later, of course, mainly for Quebec and for the National

Capital Region). Concurrently, we issued general instructions to federal Departments and got in touch with various associations and councils which concerned themselves with the problems of hearing-impaired Canadians, both to inform them of our existence and, if I may say so, to lend an ear to their advice and requests.

To sum up, the service we provide is intended for use by any hearing impaired person in Canada who has to deal with a representative of the Federal Government. This includes job interviews, meetings, participation in Federal Commissions, etc. In addition, Federal Public Servants who require sign language interpretation may use interpreters from the Bureau for interviews, staff meetings, employment evaluations, job training, special courses and other job-related activities.

A hearing impaired person who has an interview for a position with the Canadian public service should remind the official responsible for arranging the interview that the services of a sign language interpreter will be required. The Bureau offers this service not only for the interview, but also for related evaluations and examinations.

Hearing impaired persons are often called upon to participate in the deliberations of Government committees, particularly those committees whose mandate deals with the status of disabled persons (the number of these committees has grown considerably since the International Year of Disabled Persons). Anybody requiring sign language interpretation who is asked to testify before a Federal Commission should contact the commission well in advance of the appearance date to request the services of an interpreter.

When a federal public servant who is hearing impaired wishes to take a work-related course offered by the public service, the Translation Bureau will provide interpretation. As soon as the person's attendance at the course has been approved by the supervisor, the details of the course and a formal request for interpretation should be forwarded to the Bureau. This has been a particularly rewarding aspect of our work. The results of helping to train hard of hearing persons in computer operation and related fields have been very spectacular.

Interpreters are paid for by the Translation Bureau, according to a fee schedule which is the same for interpreters in all languages. This cost is not billed back to the department using the service. When it is not possible to find an interpreter locally, it may be necessary to bring in an interpreter from another city. In this case, the department requesting the service is expected to pay the travel expenses of the interpreter.

The Translation Bureau strives to provide an interpretation service of the highest quality. We are in the process of preparing a videotaped evaluation for all our sign language interpreters. When this evaluation is completed, interpreters will be required to pass it in order to be placed on the Bureau's list of freelance interpreters. The goal of this evaluation is to ensure that deaf people receive a high standard of service from the Federal Government.

The Secretary of State also provides major funding each year to the University of Ottawa for its summer courses in sign language interpretation. Courses are offered in both English and French, and cover sign language vocabulary, structure, and interpreting skills at various levels. By funding these professional development courses, the government hopes to encourage a high standard among its present interpreters, and provide a source of qualified sign language interpreters for the future.

As you can see, we are helping in a very positive way to put forward the idea that sign language is, in a sense, just another official language in the Canadian Federal Administration, and that hearing impaired individuals in their dealings with or within the government have a right to receive proper linguistic support. This, very fortunately, is a far cry from attitudes such as those described in a resolution passed at the First International Congress of Educators of the Deaf in Milan (Italy) in 1880, which stated the superiority of speech over sign language and is responsible for a good part of the linguistic suppression to which all forms of visual language were subjected until quite recently.

If I may, I would like to touch on two problems we have encountered and are encountering in the area of visual language interpretation. Both really have to do with quality. All of us who have experience in quality control in the fields of translation and interpretation will feel on familiar ground.

To put things in perspective, let me remind you that we, from the outset, had decided to apply the same fees to all interpreters, visual as well as oral. This created one set of problems, which I will address in a moment. In addition, the Translation Bureau decided that, as for oral interpretation or any other provision of linguistic service, it had to place emphasis on quality assurance rather than, as some of our clients would have expected, on paying for a service.

As a result we are being criticized by some social agencies both for having set our fees much higher than those they used to paying, and for refusing to hire agencies rather than individual freelancers. Furthermore, some associations or interpreters are not very happy that we have decided to institute our own testing program, both for French and for English visual interpretation, rather than relying entirely on associations for the accreditation process.

Our intentions when insisting on hiring individual interpreters rather than agencies, most of which have a social, religious or other non-linguistic approaches to the problem of deafness, are twofold: as I have said several times before, we believe that sign languages are languages in the true sense of the word, and that interpretation into or out of these languages is at least as difficult as what is practised in the oral languages, both in the simultaneous and in the consecutive modes. Firstly, then, we believe that visual language interpreters must be regarded as true professionals, on an equal footing with their vocal colleagues; this is the only way people will be attracted to the profession.

Secondly, we intend to insist on the "bridging of a linguistic gap," rather than letting the old notion of "handicap" obtain. In fact, if we want to talk about handicaps, let me tell you that I have often felt much more handicapped at not being able to understand sign language or express myself in it than those who could master it.

Our efforts to professionalize sign language interpretation thus meet with objections by two groups: those who seem to have regarded this type of interpretation as a crutch, a pis aller rather than a bona fide means of expression, and those who seem to be afraid of being judged by others. Interestingly, hardly any objection has been expressed by the people most concerned with the problem in general: the hearing impaired community.

It would probably be very interesting to try and determine what and who has brought about the shift in interest in sign language interpretation from, if I may say so, welfare to linguistics. From my experience of conversations with hearing impaired persons and interpreters both in Canada and in the United States, particularly at the National Registry of Interpreters of the Deaf and at Gallaudet College, I have been led to conclude that the proportion of students of visual languages who have never been in a deaf environment is increasing. In other words, more and more visual language interpreters have chosen this career not because one of their parents was deaf, but out of sheer linguistic interest.

In the screening procedures used in our qualification process of sign language interpreters, the only qualification some of the applicants invoke is the fact that one of their parents was deaf. True enough, a language learned as a mother tongue--and that, in fact, is how many "signers" refer to their language--is a good base on which to develop interpretation skills. But just as it does not suffice to be a native speaker of any language and to have good command of another to be a good translator or interpreter in the "vocal" field, so it is not sufficient to be able to sign and understand signs to be, or even to become a good interpreter. As was pointed out by a German translator in a recent professional paper, who would dare call himself a surgeon because he owns a sharp knife--or even a scalpel? Yet language, sign or vocal, is but a tool, nothing but a tool.

The misunderstanding, I'm afraid, is still widespread. To paraphrase Danica Seleskovitch, whose studies and writings on interpretation are, in my view, compulsory reading for anybody who wants to find out from an interpreter what the art and science is about: languages are knowledge, and a prerequisite for the acquisition of know-how, as interpretation and translation may be defined. Interestingly enough, by the way, "Interpreting for International Conferences," an English translation of Miss Seleskovitch's "L'interprete dans les conferences internationales" is to be found in a prominent place in the libraries of students and teachers of sign language interpretation at Gallaudet.

The reasons for this are numerous: Miss Seleskovitch, a conference interpreter of international standing for many years, brilliantly, eloquently and very pragmatically looks at her chosen field of endeavour and explains how the impossible is actually done: the immediate expression of someone else's thought. And although the original studies are really

based on oral interpretation, their usefulness to practitioners of sign language interpretation amply proves the truly semiotic resemblance between words and signs.

In closing, I should like to draw another comparison between vocal and visual interpretation. Several studies have been made of the fatigue experienced by conference interpreters. As we all know, the profession has, through lengthy trial and error, been able to establish a rule of thumb, whereby, all other things being equal, interpreters rotate every twenty or thirty minutes. Studies on sign language interpretation reveal that, as well, skills remain at their highest levels during the first 30 minutes, after which there is a slow but increasing rate of error, which becomes statistically significant after 60 minutes.

In the comparison with vocal interpretation, two peculiarities of visual language interpretation must be pointed out: firstly, the fact that (except when used to dub a television presentation, such as a question period at the Canadian House of Commons, where interpreters work sitting down) visual language interpreters usually have to work standing up, mostly on a platform so as to be seen by all. This, to say the least, is much more uncomfortable than working in a booth. Secondly--and I have yet to hear a convincing explanation of this phenomenon, confirmed by all visual language interpreters I know--interpreting from sign to voice is extremely fatiguing, much more so than voice to sign, and probably more than voice to voice. I will venture one explanation: all other things being equal, most interpreters would, I believe, agree that concentration is <u>the</u> most demanding, fatiguing element in interpretation. Possibly, having to simultaneously analyze and understand a message which is seen while having to speak is more demanding than being able to lean to a certain extent on some reflexes while signing. One must also remember that this was found true especially when interpreting from American Sign Language (ASL), which has structures as different from those of grammatical English (or signed English), as German does.

I hope, in concluding, that I have been able to prove my point. I feel, however, that I owe you an explanation--or an excuse--for not having become fluent in sign language interpretation. If you allow me, I will take it from Goethe's <u>Wilhelm Meister</u>:

> Man soll sich vor einem talente Hüten,
> Das Man in Vollkommenheit Auszuüben nicht Hoffnung at,
> Man mag es darin so weit bringen, als man will,
> So wird man doch immer zuletzt,
> wenn uns einmal das Verdienst des Meisters klar wird,
> den Verlust von Zeit und Kräften,
> die man auf solche Pfuscherei gewendet hat,
> Schmerzlich Bedauern.

We would do well to shun the pursuit of an art that we
cannot hope to cultivate to perfection.
No matter how far we progress in its service, the
day will come when we will perceive the merit of
true mastery,
and our own dull mediocrity will in the end seem a
waste of time and effort,
painfully regretted.

Alex-Olde Kalter (BSO/Research, Utrecht, The Netherlands)

LANGUAGE PLANNING AND THE AUTOMATIC TRANSLATION SYSTEM D.L.T.

Abstract

The development of machine translation is placed in the context of technological development and the need for language planning. A translation market research by the EEC indicates a growth of the translation market. The EEC has innovation funds, from which the software house BSO of the Netherlands received support for a study on the feasibility of a semi-automatic, multilingual translation system, DLT, in 1983. Subsequently, BSO received a promise for more support, now for the construction of a DLT-system for the first language pair: English to French, from the Netherlands Ministry of Economic Affairs. A description of the system is given: DLT's intermediate language, its interactive disambiguation dialogue etc. The relation between machine translation and special types of text is discussed, as well as the implied terminology research.

The rapid development of technology has facilitated an increase in international communication. Such facilitation in turn leads again and again to a need for further technological development. As a result language tends to become more and more standardized. At the lexical level one can think of terminology standardization, but in certain situations, syntax as well has to be regulated, simply to get clear and unambiguous communication. Another consequence of technological development is that, within a more and more networked and paperless international communication system, the translation link cannot remain an exclusively paper-oriented process.

A good example of these two changes is offered by XEROX. This company, with its world-wide export, has adopted the so-called Multinational Customized English for the writing of documentation to their products. They also use the SYSTRAN machine translation system to overcome the time pressures of the translation and frequent updating of this multilingual documentation.

Machine translation was until recently thought likely to become a tool only for specialists, but the advance of the word-processor and the so-called paperless office of the future make a more general introduction of machine translation in the future evident. Of course, this will not happen at once. But, for example a connection to a term-bank could be the beginning of such a process; it is only one step from this to the insertion of automatic terminology into the text, and that is already the beginning of automation of the translation process. However, in the term "automatic translation", one has to write "automatic" in quotes, because human help will be needed, as long as artificial intelligence is not available.

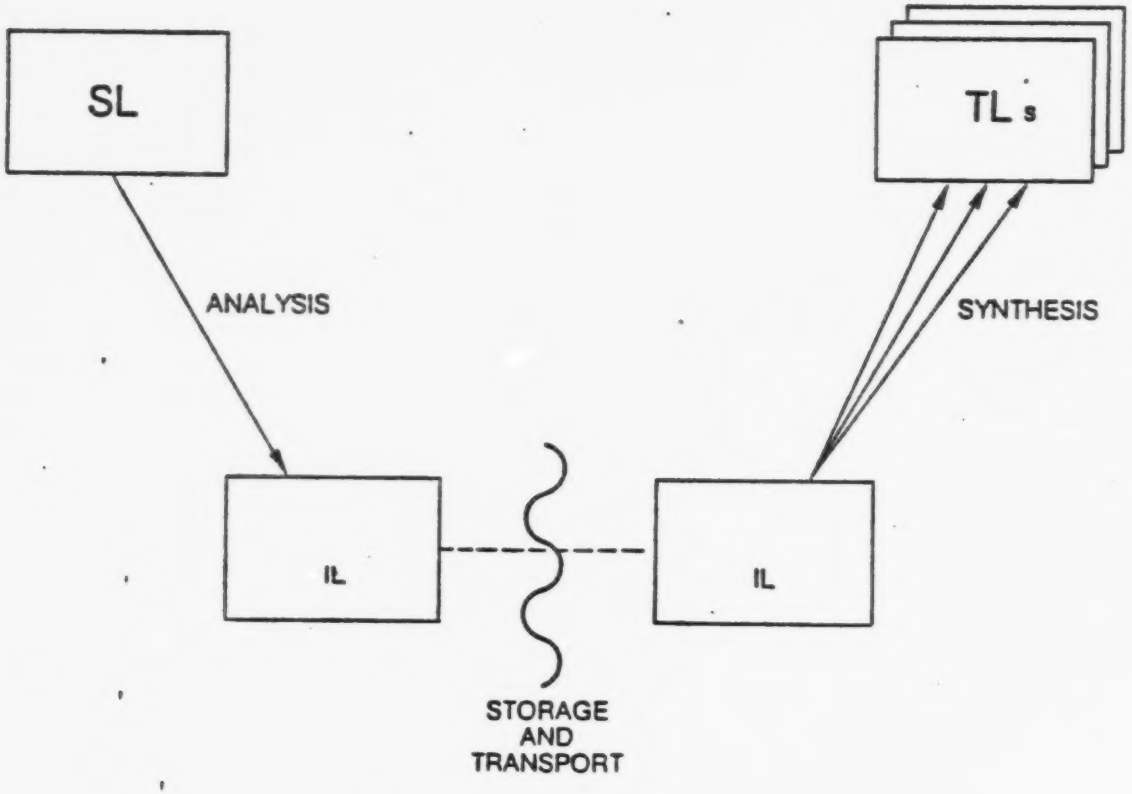
There are already several machine translation systems on the market, including LOGOS, ALPS, WEIDNER, and the already mentioned SYSTRAN system. SYSTRAN is also in use at the European Community, mainly for the most important language pair in this political and economic organization of European countries, English to French. The period needed for a high-quality translation is reduced by SYSTRAN from three weeks to only four days. At the ASLIB congress on automatic translation in London, EEC translators said that they find post-editing a very satisfactory job, because the routine work has already been done by the machine.

Translation market research has been conducted up by the European Community. One rather optimistic paragraph from the report states: "Ce marché est en expansion de neuf a dix purcent par an. Il existe en outre un marché latent, potentiel, de l'ordre de trente purcent du marché actuel, qui se révélerait devant une baisse des prix et des délais de fourniture." [van Dijk, 1981] This means that the employment of translators is certainly not in danger.

In 1985, with money from innovation funds of the European Community, the Netherlands Software house BSO performed a study of the feasibility of a semi-automatic, multilingual translation system, DLT [Witkam, 1983]. The assessment made by three independent experts from different EEC-countries was a sound starting point for further support. And, indeed, very recently, we got our support: by the end of 1984, we had a promise from the Minister of Economic Affairs of the Netherlands for fifty percent of

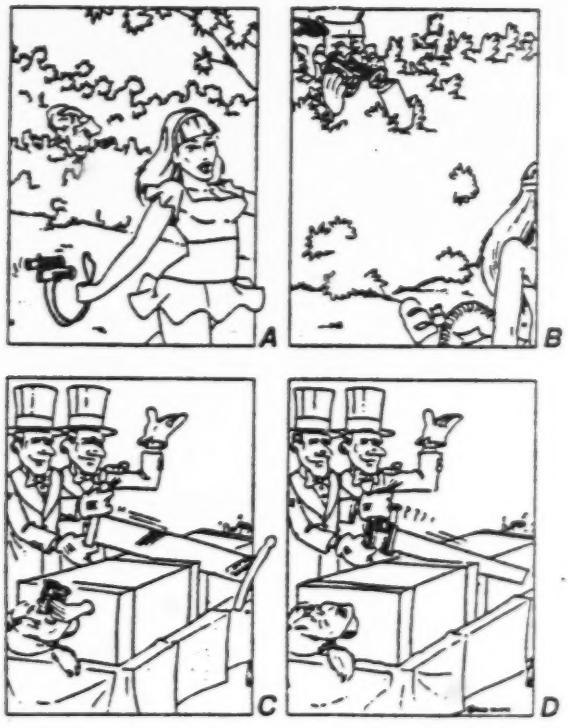
the four million dollars needed for DLT's second phase, namely the construction of a first system for the language pair English-French, to be built in a period of six years, with a team of about twelve people. The system will be extended with other languages after 1990. DLT will be a multilingual, networked translation system: hence its name Distributed Language Translation.

The translation process is divided into analysis of the source text, resulting in an intermediate representation from which translation into several target languages is possible. This division offers a clear correspondence with the outside operational environment, because the intermediate representation will be used for storage and for transport through the network:



There are a number of possible models for machine translation. In the first place one can mention the direct systems, with their unmodular, monolithic structure, used in the first machine translation systems. In the so-called transfer-systems, one has a transfer of the analysis-results in the form of an abstract representation with, for example, three structures and labels such as "agent", "patient" and "beneficiary." And, last but not least, there are the interlingual systems, in which there is a conversion of the analysis-results into an intermediate language that has both a syntactical and a lexical component of its own. Andreyev, in his article "The Intermediary Language as the Focal Point of Machine Translation," argues for the use of such a language: "Human languages are much nearer to each other, than to symbols of any variation of a logical system, and consequently, an effective Intermediary Language must be sufficiently similar to spoken human paralanguages." [Andreyev, 1967]. Natural languages, however, are too ambiguous for this aim, and ambiguity is the biggest problem for the computer. Therefore, in DLT, an artificial language was taken as a starting point. Esperanto appeared to be the best developed artificial language and had a world-wide scientific support-network. The most important aim of our feasibility study was to prove the extensibility of Esperanto's ambiguity-resisting power. Some examples of ambiguous phrases with their Esperanto-equivalents will illustrate my point: "They saw the girl with the binoculars" has, without any context, two meanings, at least for us. But for the computer, the verb-form "saw" is also the present tense of "to saw." This leads to two other ambiguities that we would not even think of:

THEY SAW THE GIRL WITH THE BINOCULARS.



The German translation, "Sie sahen das Mädchen mit dem Feldstecher," shows the same prepositional ambiguity. Esperanto, however, has a distinction: "BY MEANS OF" is "PER": "ILI VIDIS LA KNABINON PER LA BINOKLO;" otherwise "KUN" is used: "ILI VIDIS LA KNABINON KUN LA BINOKLO." In this case we therefore did not need to modify Esperanto. This language has been developed, however, for human use, which always implies a certain degree of ambiguity. In a lot of cases, as we noted, we are not even conscious of all formal ambiguities. But for the computer every ambiguity is equally possible. So, where Esperanto allows an ambiguous construction, we have to introduce a modification. Let me give an example of how we proceed in such cases: the phrase "He caught a half meter long fish" is in Esperanto "Li kaptis DUONAN METRON LONGAN FISON." In this phrase, both the object and the measure-indication have the accusative-form, which might lead to false object-interpretations, etc. A comparison with other languages offered a solution. Compare for example measure-indication in German and in Russian in a phrase such as "He is six years older than his brother": "Er ist UM sechs Jahre älter als sein Bruder" and "On starse brata NA sest' set." Both languages use a preposition as an indicator of measurement: "UM" and "NA." We introduced the same in our intermediate language: the existing preposition "je," used with the nominative (like all prepositions in normal Esperanto) as an indicator of time. To avoid a double (ambiguous) function, we combine "je" in the case of measurement with the accusative. So, instead of "DUONAN METRON LONGAN FISON," as in Esperanto, we get "JE DUONAN METRON LONGAN FISON."

Although many ambiguities can be resolved by the computer on the basis of the grammatical data in the electronic dictionary and grammar, others, namely those that are related to our "knowledge of the world," cannot because they simply do not, or, better, not yet, have such knowledge. So, in these cases, the human has to help. In DLT, this is done by an interactive dialogue with the computer. For example, the French "Il insulta le président plus violemment encore que l'orateur précédent" will lead to a computer-initiated question on the screen about the ambiguity:

Disambiguation dialogue

1:Il insulta l'orateur précédent.

2:L'orateur précédent insulta le président.

Quelle interprétation? '1' ou '2':_

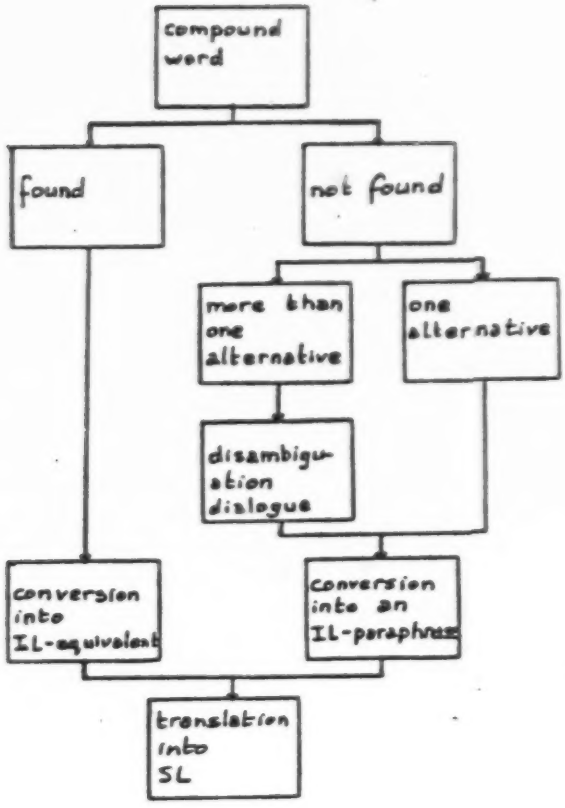
Each meaning of an ambiguity has its own representation in the unambiguous Intermediate Language, so the rest of DLT's translation-process will be fully automatic.

The first two years of DLT's second phase will be used to build a pilot system with a restricted type of text. The Netherlands aeroplane-factory, Fokker, uses "Simplified English" to avoid ambiguities and, in general, vagueness in their manuals. This less ambiguous type of text offers, of course, a very attractive point of departure for our first pilot system. Fokker has already produced "Simplified English Texts," that we are allowed to use for DLT.

Machine translation activities need to be directed towards LSP, Language for Special Purposes, and, more generally, towards the "informative type of text." In LSP texts, as Beier (1980) suggests terminology plays a very important role: "(...) die Spezifik der einzelnen Fachwortschätze wird bereits auf relativ hohen Rängen [of frequency lists: AOK] deutlich. Bereits unter den ersten hundert lexikalischen Einheiten aller listen der Häufigkeitswörterbücher sind zwischen 10 und 26% als charakteristisch fur die betreffende FS [LSP; AOK] anzusehen; ihr Anteil erhöht sich mit abnehmender Häufigkeit (...)." In DLT, therefore terminology research plays an important role; BSO/Research also has good contacts with INFOTERM, the Unesco terminology research centre in Vienna.

I would like to conclude this contribution with two examples of our terminology research, directed, of course, at DLT. Both examples concern the fact that terms frequently are compounds (about 50%; cf. Ischreyt, 1965).

Research done on the structure of compounds makes it clear that it is simply not possible to indicate unequivocally the relationship between elements on the basis of the compound form. For example, "transport insurance" and "fire insurance" have exactly the same formal structure, but the relation is a rather different one; one does not insure oneself against transport. Humans usually understand the relationship but computers do not. Therefore it is necessary to insert in the dictionary as many compound terms as possible in addition to the separate insertion of their component parts. However, the proliferation of terms, a result of rapid technological development, etc., prevents an exhaustive insertion. The occurrence of a new term that is not yet in DLT's dictionary does not necessarily lead to untranslatability. Although unequivocal fully automatic analysis of compounds on the basis of their form and grammatical data (e.g. valencies) is not possible, a computation of a number of probable interpretations can be carried out. On the basis of such facts as the relationship between grammatical data and the actual component parts, a hierarchy of probabilities within these interpretations can often be computed. In certain cases, the probability of one interpretation might even approximate 1; here no human help is needed. More than one interpretation, if they exceed certain probability boundaries, will be presented in the disambiguation dialogue. The dominating compound structures will serve as "default" interpretations for the unknown compounds. The dialogue will then enable the human to "override" the default choice, and select a different interpretation. The following flow chart shows how this process might work:



Of course, in these cases one may not expect a normal translation. After a choice has been made by the human, this interpretation, in the form of a paraphrase, will be translated like any other phrase. These paraphrases will often contain a preposition indicating the relationship. For example, the German 'Rentenversicherung' has another interrelationship than 'Brandversicherung'. Accordingly, the dialogue might look as follows:

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┌──────────────────────────────────────┐
│                                      │
│  BEDEUTET 'RENTENVERSICHERUNG' HIER: │
│                                      │
│  1: VERSICHERUNG DER RENTE?          │
│                                      │
│  2: VERSICHERUNG GEGEN RENTE?        │
│                                      │
│  BITTE WAHLEN: 1 ODER 2 _            │
│                                      │
└──────────────────────────────────────┘
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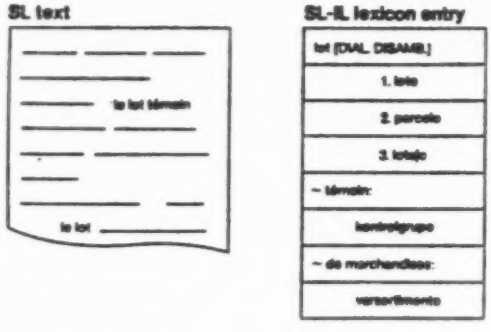
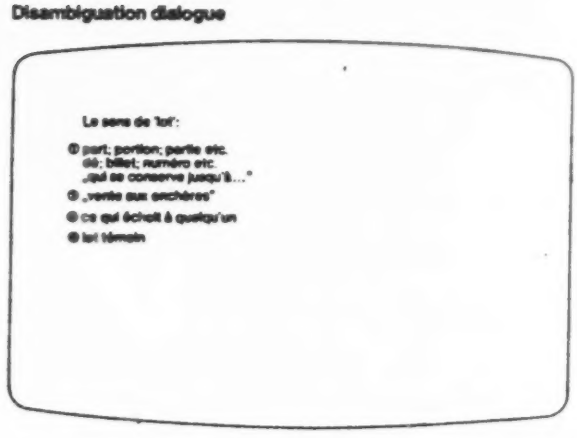
The translation would be:

ENGLISH:	:	"assurance of the annuity"
as opposed to the usual	:	"annuity assurance"
DUTCH:	:	"verzekering der lijfrente"
as opposed to the usual	:	"lijfrenteverzekering"
FRENCH:	:	"assurance de rentes viagéres"
just as the usual	:	"assurance de rentes viagéres"

So, in certain cases, and especially in French with its preference for analytical compounds, often related by prepositions, DLT's paraphrastical translation may even result in the usual variant.

Another compound phenomenon is that of "shortening." For example, in a French text "lot témoin" (control group) and "Lot" may be used interchangeably. "Lot" has, however, other meanings. Clearly then entries of words such as "Lot" that could also be the shortened forms of compounds have to be extended. As shown below, only if "lot témoin," has occurred previously will the dialogue present this as a possible meaning of "lot."




Disambiguation dialogue
Le sens de 'lot':
❶ part; portion; partie etc.
dé; billet; numéro etc.
„qui se conserve jusqu'à..."
❸ „vente aux enchères"
❹ ce qui échoit à quelqu'un
❺ lot témoin

By means of such special devices, terminology in DLT's LSP-texts will be translated if not always literally, at least adequately.

Language planning, not only in the domain of terminology standardization, but also on the syntactical level, is being applied more and more (cf. XEROX, FOKKER and a number of other companies). The link to automatic translation is very interesting, for ambiguity problems play a role for both the computer and the human. This may lead to a more general interaction between automatic translation and language planning.

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INTERMEDIATE LANGUAGE IN MULTI-LANGUAGE SIMULATIONS

Abstract

A communication method is presented that is useful in systems involving human-machine and human-human interactions in a multi-language medium. An example of such a system is a simulation game, and educational program based on instruction by computer-imitation of realistic situations. Trainees interact with the simulation system, and eventually also among themselves. In an international, multi-language simulation, there are several methods for the communication scheme: 1) a system command language, 2) one working language (WL), often English, and 3) multi-language communications.

All these alternatives have serious disadvantages. The first one introduces a language barrier between the user and the system, requires trainees to learn the command set, and eliminates spontaneous communications. Method 2) is limited to trainees with a good knowledge of the WL; the need to communicate in a foreign language many create a barrier and reduce spontaneity, and differences in the level of WL-knowledge of various trainees masks the educative process. Method 3) requires extensive translation, which introduces large overheads in system complexity, manpower, response-time and cost. A different method that combines the advantages of methods 2) and 3) is the introduction of an intermediate language, easy to learn and yet flexible and expressive, that would serve for user-user communication and/or as a WL.

This method is being applied in the project "Young Unispace/ Simulated World 2001," a UN-related project for the International Youth Year. The project aims to teach subjects such as international relations and economy by letting young people from different countries simulate governments and inter-state relations. The project will use Esperanto as its exclusive communication language. It will encourage the trainees to self-study Esperanto for user-user communications, using a system facility. In so doing, the simulation will be able to demonstrate language problems in international relations.

I. Simulation Games

Simulation is a process that imitates real systems in order to get information and forecast situations that may occur under actual operation. A specific example is planning a traffic complex, and using a simulation in order to determine the number of lanes and setting of light that will optimize the traffic flow at peak hours. Some other possible uses are planning the marketing of a new product, or designing public polls.

A simulation may incorporate human participants, either as an essential part of the simulation process or in order to teach or train the participants. Training via a simulation-game is very realistic and stimulating for the participants, and therefore quite efficient. A particularly exciting and unpredictable dimension in a simulation game is the interaction among different human participants, or user-user interaction.

There are several advantages to using a simulation game on a multi-national level. First, it can test and profit from the interaction of different cultures and mentalities. It also stimulates international collaboration and communication; a single system may serve many countries. Finally, it may provide an effective method of channelling advanced technology and knowledge to evolving countries and the third world. The basic features of an international simulation system are a central processing facility, regional centers and a communication system.

Although specifically demonstrated on simulation systems, the following sections apply equally well to any system which involves human-machine and human-human interactions in a multi-language medium.

II. Communication Methods

Users need some operative language in order to communicate with the system. This language may be a set of commands or operation codes, like in a programming language (a system language), a human language, or any combination of the two. A system language has the advantage of being adapted to the system needs and makes the building and operation of the simulation program simple and efficient. The other alternative, that of having users talk to the system in a more-or-less free-format human language, is more complicated and requires syntactic and dictionary programs, as well as user-to-system interpretation. On the other hand, with a human language the interaction of users with the system is much more natural and spontaneous, and users do not need to study operation manuals and memorize system commands.

A similar but more acute choice between system simplicity and user convenience, arises on the multi-language level. If there are users of different native languages, requiring picking a certain language as the working language (abbreviated WL) for communication with the system may be more difficult than the system-language method for those users who had not mastered that language. It may present more problems since studying a foreign language is often more difficult than studying a manual. Even users that had learned the WL, would be at a disadvantage compared with

users who were native speakers of the WL. There is an additional complicating factor, which we shall call unequality. The progress users make in the educational process may be dependant on their level of understanding and ability to communicate in the WL. Language inequality prevents the education system from treating the different users as a homogenous group, from obtaining statistics of their progress, and from applying classroom methods. This problem could be avoided by enabling users to talk to the system in their native language, but at the price of increasing the linguistic overhead mentioned above N-fold, where N is the number of languages involved. Also, a new linguistic interface would have to be added whenever a user with a new native language joined the simulation. Things become even more complicated when user-user communications are considered. If direct translation is to be used, NxN translation systems are needed, and if the translation is via one fixed language (say the WL), N systems are still required, and the translation is a two-step one (that is, in order to go from language X to Y, the translation scheme is X-WL-Y), which would increase overhead, response time and misunderstanding. Using a single language for user-user communication would eliminate these problems, but would accent even more the effects of discrimination and inequality discussed above.

Partial solutions may be attained by such compromises as allowing users to choose among a limited number of major languages or using commands together with inoperative text.

III. The Intermediate-Language Method

We suggest a different method, one which combines the advantages of the two extreme methods mentioned above. It consists of introducing what we call an intermediate language (abbreviated IL), which may serve both as a user-system channel and as a user-user communication channel. The IL is learned by the users as part of the simulation. In order to fulfill these functions successfully, the IL must have certain features:

a. It must be very easy to learn (it must be possible to acquire the basic knowledge of the IL necessary for the simulation within the framework of the program itself),

b. It must have a regular and simple structure in order to minimize the user-system interface required,

c. It must be expressive and flexible enough to enable the users to freely express themselves with the basic knowledge acquired, and

d. It should preferably not be a native language of any subgroup of users.

A candidate-language that has all these features (and the only one actively used by many people) is Esperanto.

Variations of this method, may involve combinations with the traditional methods discussed above; one particularly advantageous configuration is that of a system language with an IL-option. Users start to interact with the simulation via a simple system language. As the simulation game progresses, they are offered the option of learning the IL at a pace and to a level they can determine themselves. User-user communications are available only via the IL, which eliminates all the complications and overhead involved in translation. As far as system

simplicity is concerned, this method has all the advantages of the system language and single WL methods, with none of the disadvantages related to user comfort, communication barriers, discrimination and inequality. Users can begin to participate at once, with a minimal amount of prestudy of rules and commands, yet the system has a full language-communication capability, which the user can gradually acquire. It allows syntax-free lingual user-system and user-user interaction without creating untolerable overheads in system complexity, cost, response time and manpower.

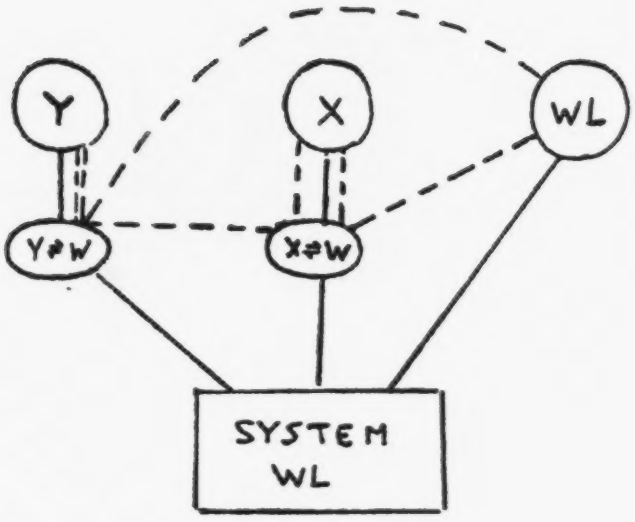
Another useful variant of the IL method is the WL+IL combination. Systems that are designed and operated using a WL, may still be extended to use an IL for optional user-user communications, as described above, and as an intermediate language, enabling users to use their native languages (or the IL directly, eliminating one translation step). The DLT-system described in this volume, is planned to accomplish exactly this function. DLT (Distributed Language Translation) is a machine-translation project being developed by the software company BSO (Netherlands) that uses Esperanto as an intermediate language and features the translation modules required for a WL+IL (Esperanto) communication system.

A schematic representation of the communication methods discussed above (multi-language, IL and WL+IL) is shown in the figure. Circles represent users and ellipses represent translation modules; user-user communication is marked by dashed lines.

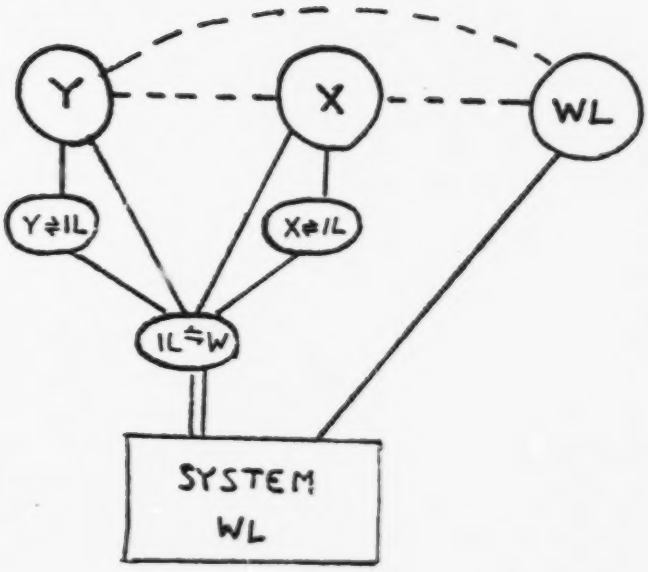
IV. Project Unispace

The above ideas are actually being applied in the project "Unispace/Simulated World 2001," which is an international simulation game being developed for the International Year of Youth, to train the youth of various countries in interstate relations, economics, and communications. The working language of the coordinating team will be English, and Esperanto will play the role of the IL described above. Participants will be able to communicate with the system in either english or their native language; in the latter case, the language will be translated into English via the IL Esperanto. There will also be the option of communicating with the system in the IL, which would eliminate one translation link (native to IL), and make the communication faster and more effective.

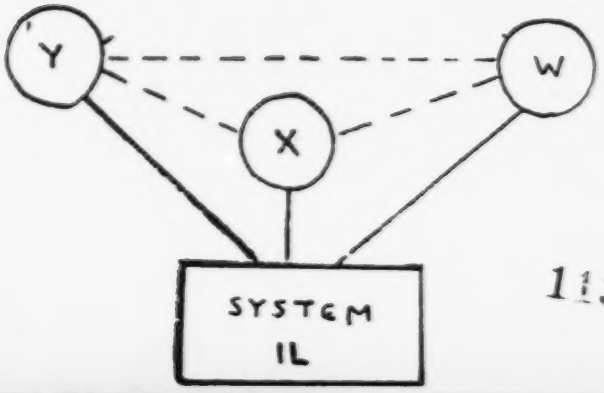
Communication with other participants will be optional, and it will be possible only in Esperanto. To this end, the system will offer a facility for self-study of Esperanto, which trainees may use at their own pace and to progress to the desired level of fluency. In addition to allowing interaction between the participants in the simulation game this method simulates the amount of resources the entities (e.g., governments) invest in communication with other entities and the advantages that are achieved from such an interaction.



Multi-Language
Communications



WL & IL
Communications



IL
Communications

Eva Berry (President, American Translators Association'
President, IBTI, Inc. [Intercontinental Bureau of
Translators and Interpreters])

PLANNING LANGUAGE SERVICES IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

Abstract

This article points out the many problems encountered by American business in its efforts to market overseas. The problems are created by lack of knowledge of not only the language but also customs and traditions of the country in which they wish to sell. These problems are connected with the problems of the translator and translation firm in their attempts to fulfill the needs of the corporations accurately. Solutions to these problems involve making the business world aware of what is involved in translation and interpreting and the inherent problems. Another solution suggested is seminars to train salesmen who will go abroad. Students learning translation and interpreting should also be guided to learn other necessary requirements such as a specialized field and familiarity with computer equipment and certain terminologies. Legislation which improves the status of the translation profession and brings more general awareness of their work will also be necessary to bring about better relationships between translator and client. Constantly improving training of the translator and more awareness on the part of corporations will certainly produce better and more successful marketing techniques abroad.

Corporations, large or small, hoping to buy or sell overseas, face many marketing problems. These problems can be solved by the development of cultural awareness, by the knowledge of language structure, and by working closely with the translator or the translation company. Regarding the difficulties of marketing abroad, I would like to put the following facts before you.

Very few Americans realize, for example, that a Mexican cannot properly translate or do copy for another Latin American country, because his language style and idiom have been formed by the dialects spoken in his own country, and by its proximity to the United States. How many of us are aware that different speech mannerisms and expressions can affect business negotiations: If you speak too loudly, too agressively, if you stand towering over your host, if you sit down before being invited to do so, and even if you cough or blow your nose in his presence, you will make a bad impression, Note well that blowing you nose in front of anyone is considered offensive in Japan, as is displaying the bare soles of your feet in Pakistan. Does the average American realise that, while the over-inflated dollar may answer some national problems, it can do tremendous harm to international trade and even cause small companies to go bankrupt. Is the American businessman aware of the many tax laws, customs duties and other problems facing him when he attempts to market overseas? Is he really aware that English is spoken in only about 10% of the world? And is he aware that he will not be able to make his point effectively if he tries to sell in English (except in some cases of special terminology such as in the airline industry and for some marketing and computer terms)?

There are many factors involved in the important issue of communication.

The average American is probably not aware that his marketing terminology differs enormously from British English terminology. Most European translators are trained in British English and have great difficulty in translating from American English and often fail to get the message across. To be effective, translations must be done by either native American or foreign national experts - depending on the target language. In addition, foreign nationals living in this country must be prepared to return at least once a year to their native country in order to keep abreast of new usages in their language. The translator must thoroughly understand inflections, idiomatic use and the fine nuances of his native language. This is indispensable for marketing whether in the written word or in narrations for industrial films, or for whatever form of language is required.

Communication is therefore essential, even vital, between client and translator, especially in highly technical translations and in advertising material. A specific example is the new terminology which has been created for the Saudi market, especially in the last 3 years. Glossaries have been produced to keep the terminology consistent and to make sure that newly created terms are not lost during this era of word processors and computer banks. Many clients are not aware of the importance of maintaining consistency in a foreign language. I will refer to the issue of "making the client aware" further on.

Awareness and understanding is possible only by working with a professional translation company and its skilled professional translators who are specialized in various fields. These companies and translators are immediately prepared to take the first steps. They possess the necessary cultural knowledge and the ability to bring the essential message to the market. They are of great help in imparting their knowledge of the idiosyncrasies of the different markets of the world. By using these specially skilled translators, narrators or interpreters, the client can be sure of a better opportunity to make sales in the overseas market. The client cannot depend only on the English language. He will be competing with other countries who have planned ahead and can present their products in the language best understood and in the way best understood in the country in which they aim to market their product.

A solution to this problem requires enormous efforts. The American salesman, to market abroad, needs specific and necessary training. This means specialized seminars, on an intensive basis perhaps, led by people qualified to inform and teach sales representatives of corporations. Crash language courses are not enough. Culture and tradition are equally important, if not more important, factors. A skilled interpreter is a far better salesman than the company official who stumbles through a long negotiation, ignoring the required niceties and demonstrating an all too apparent lack of understanding.

Nowadays specialized equipment, such as word processors, is used to produce a correct, clear and well-formatted document. If typesetting and graphics are also needed, those firms are used which are aware of language problems such as expansion or contraction of text in translation. With this careful preparation of written material and with basic grounding in language, manners and customs of the foreign country, we eliminate possible friction and misunderstanding.

Planning and preparation in translation involve a good deal more than a thorough knowledge of a language.

Preparation begins with translator and translation company knowing past events and keeping abreast of contemporary happenings in the world. They must be compulsive readers of all types of material. They must know the political trends, detentes, discords, who trades with whom, and which commodities are most in demand. Planning and preparation are the basics for people like me when, as President of the American Translators Association, I work closely with language associations, teachers of foreign languages and Government departments. We planners act many times as counsellors for language students who question whether their language studies will assure them of a good job. Preparation involves keeping abreast of more than world issues. There must also be awareness of language trends. If I told you that Japanese, with German a close second, are the two languages most in demand today, would that surprise you? If I told you that the South American market is almost non-existent today because of the inflated U.S. dollar, that Arabic translation is on the down-grade because of the OPEC crisis and because the Saudi government is subsidizing the Mid-East political turmoil and slowing down its business relations with the western world, would that surprise you? If I told you that Chinese has not even begun yet, that Russian is non-existent in the international business market, that Polish is mostly

translated for the purpose of studying the Polish legal system, that Farsi is only translated because of certain litigation cases, that French is still the only language of diplomats, would this be something new to you?

How are our colleges reacting to this? What languages do they teach? What do they tell their students? What do they encourage their students to undertake? They encourage them to major in languages, yes, but to minor in computer techniques, or law, or economics. Languages alone will not suffice; the world is moving too quickly. Translators must face the fact that several large companies have devised a machine that (supposedly) translates (called MT). Does the client understand that these machines do not function by merely having a secretary or programmer on hand, but that functioning depends upon having a knowledgeable translator or editor on hand? One day there will certainly be more sophisticated equipment on the market, but only if the computer industry is wise enough to use translators to supplement, help program and later work with these machines when called upon to edit translations. Where does this leave the student in the meanwhile? Working frantically to catch up and keep up with today's demands.

Each beginning language student should be tested to determine the type of language - Romance, Teutonic, Oriental, etc. - for which he is best suited. Some are gifted by nature with a good ear for colloquial speech, or perhaps for formal interpreting. Others are best with the written word. Style, idiomatic useage, precision, ability to do research, adaptability and enthusiasm are all involved in the making of a good translator or interpreter.

The translation company and translator plan and prepare for the benefit of the client. As I mentioned earlier, we need to persuade clients to use language in a more sophisticated way, and we need to teach their personnel through seminars. I constantly make every effort to provide the client, whether governmental agency or of the business world, with the necessary knowledge and specialized information. There are many problems. For instance, when a client requests translation into Chinese, we ask, "Mainland or Taiwan Chinese?" The reply is either "Chinese, of course!" or "I don't know." The client's final decision is to use Taiwan Mandarin, but the client also insists on keeping in the text "People's Republic of China" We must then rely on our judgment and leave it out of the Chinese version. Unfortunately the English version cannot be changed and, when that arrives in Taiwan, it creates such a furor that the entire project is scrapped. Had we asked the client at the beginning to allow us to do the translation in two versions, he would have suspected us of trying to benefit from a higher fee. We certainly would have done the second version at a greatly reduced rate; by the time the client had understood this it would have been after the fact - too late.

Another enormous problem is that of format. The client often presents the original version already in brochure form, with a determined amount of text on each page and all planned along with graphics and illustrations. The translated version has expanded or contracted and will not fit into the corresponding pages or with corresponding illustrations. Spanish will have many more words. Chinese can employ an entire line or just one character. Arabic reads from right to left. Imagine the problems in the case of an English into Spanish translation (Spanish may expand as much as 15%) when the English text has tightly filled pages.

In the case of narration for films, similar problems exist. Usually the client is asked if the script is already timed in the English version and, if so, has space been left on the tape for the expanded foreign version. In most cases this provision has not been made. The translator must then do mental acrobatics in order to fit the foreign language into less space than needed without losing clarity and the meaning of the English text. This means using more time and therefore a higher fee. Why does the client grumble and complain about the higher price? Because he was not aware of this problem.

Another problem which surfaces quite often is that of time. The translator is asked to translate a document within three days which took the client's staff at least three weeks to prepare - and how often this does happen! To our "But we need more time.", his reply is, "Doesn't this just have to be translated?" We ask him how long it took his engineers to create this document and how long it took to be typed. We ask "Do you realize that we need a translator with an engineering background to translate this and a legal translator to go over legal terms?" The invariable reaction is a blank look and then the reply, "Well, if you can't do it, we'll find someone who can." If he does find someone who claims it can be done within 72 hours, imagine the mess resulting at the end of that time. As a specific example, last year IBTI bid on a job which involved lists of technical terms. Now, this is not an easy project. Lists are lists - there are no sentences. Someone who just sits there and looks up words in a dictionary will not produce an accurate document - but just a lot of trouble. The translator for such a job must have the background needed for this particular technical field and he or she will need more time for proper research and thought. The charge must then be higher than for an ordinary translation. Our bid was not accepted but we did get the job this year. Why? Because the company whose bid had been accepted used a person who not only transliterated the words but also used Arabic as per the English version and also - horrors! - alphabetized the Arabic as per the English version. This is what happens when a client uses a casual and non-professional translator.

As the struggle continues in our efforts to inform and help the client communicate with his foreign market, it becomes apparent how much these problems need to be given more exposure.

The American Translators Association, of which I am President, is trying to overcome these problems. We have established a system of accreditation and have given examinations for the last several years. They are upgraded every year in order to weed out the casual translator and keep the skilled ones. We are succeeding and the result is our "Translator Service Directory". Since the weeding process is not yet complete, in order to find a good translator it is best to look for the word "accredited" in the translator's language summary. This summary will give the language or languages and the specialized field, but the key word is "accredited".

Other organizations are also trying to find solutions. Three years ago the Federal courts devised a certification examination. This eliminated many interpreters from court work and created a high standard in the profession. State Courts have followed suit. Universities are also making their contribution. New York University now has a translator-training course for

students and for professionals who wish to improve their skills. City University of New York has received a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation for a translator-training program which is accredited. Florida State University offers courses in interpreting. Among the many other schools which also have excellent translator-training courses are Georgetown University, SUNY Binghampton, State University of North Carolina at Charlotte and Brigham Young University.

Each beginning student should be tested to determine the type of language - Romance, Teutonic, Oriental, etc. - for which he is best suited. Some are gifted by nature with a good ear for colloquial speech, or perhaps for formal interpreting. Others are best with the written word. Style, idiomatic useage, precision, ability to do research, adaptability and enthusiasm are all involved in the making of a good translator or interpreter.

The fact that translation is now being given importance by the academic world enhances its professional standing; we can now better plan for the future. We can plan to train our young students and guide them towards the language or languages which may lead to a good career; plan to get them into a job market where their skills will be appreciated; plan to go on with continuing education courses to further their learning. We can plan to work with other language associations which are lobbying to get more needed language bills passed. ATA is a strong supporter of language-related legislation. Although such bills do not all affect us directly, all are instrumental in creating awareness and giving deserved status to language and translation.

I have recently been elected Chairman of the Public Relations Committee of the International Federation of Translators (FIT). This gives me the welcome opportunity to learn about the legal and social status of translators in 41 countries! I may now do further research into the ways translators throughout the world work with their clients. This knowledge will help in my work to strengthen the translator's position and raise his status in the United States. I am aware that translators here are socially and legally far behind most translators of other countries. As President of our national association, it is my greatest wish to bring about awareness that translation exists as a profession.

In 1670, Molière told a middle class merchant, "La langue turque est comme cela, elle dit beaucoup en peux de paroles." (Turkish is like that, it says a lot in a few words.) I don't say with this that Turkish is the best language for international commerce, but then neither is English. Indeed William James said, "Language is the most imperfect and expensive means of communication." When you translate into a foreign language, therefore, make sure that your communication is clear and in the most economical form possible. Use qualified experts who know your field and can apply the most effective methods to put your ideas across. Clarity and knowledge are the gems which the good translator gives to your promotional material.

APPENDIX 1: THE CENTER FOR RESEARCH AND DOCUMENTATION ON WORLD LANGUAGE PROBLEMS.

APPENDIX 1

THE CENTER FOR RESEARCH AND DOCUMENTATION ON WORLD LANGUAGE PROBLEMS

The Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems (CRD) is an international body created for the advancement of study, documentation and education on all aspects of language problems in international relations. CRD is particularly interested not only in the examination of language problems per se but also in the exploration of language planning at the international level.

The Center sponsors a scholarly periodical, LANGUAGE PROBLEMS AND LANGUAGE PLANNING (LPLP), published three times a year by the University of Texas Press. It also publishes books and reports from time to time and organizes and sponsors conferences and seminars.

The headquarters of the Center is in the Netherlands, in Rotterdam. The board consists of Dr. Humphrey Tonkin (USA, chair), Dr. Detlev Blanke (German Democratic Republic), Dr. Probal Dasgupta (India), Dr. Bernard Golden (Hungary), Dr. Ulrich Lins (Federal Republic of Germany), Professor Jonathan Pool (USA), Mr. Ryszard Rokicki (Poland), Professor Bruce Sherwood (USA), and Mr. Edward Symoens (Belgium).

The periodical LPLP is edited by Dr. Humphrey Tonkin (USA). Associate Editor is Dr. Frank Nuessel (USA). Subscription information can be obtained from the University of Texas Press, P.O. Box 7819, Austin, Texas 78712.

The report of the First Annual Conference of CRD in New York, entitled World Communications Year 1983: Language and Language Learning, can be obtained for $7.50 from the Center's office at 777 United Nations Plaza, New York, New York 10017. The report of the Second Annual Conference, entitled Language Behavior in International Organizations, can be obtained from the same address at $10.00 per copy.

APPENDIX 2: FUTURE CONFERENCES OF THE CENTER FOR RESEARCH AND DOCUMENTATION ON WORLD LANGUAGE PROBLEMS

CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE AND RELIGION

A conference on Language and Religion, sponsored by the Center for Research and Documentation on World Language Problems, has been tentatively scheduled for April 11-13, 1986, at Mercy College in Dobbs Ferry, New York.

The role of language in religion has several facets. It is generally understood that somehow the two complement and supplement each other, but the nature of this relationship is relatively unexplored. The question essentially divides itself into three issues: the role of language in the structure of belief, the function of language in various practices of different religions or faiths, and language as a factor itself in the organization of religious movements and in communication among members of the same religion.

All three of these issues are present in almost all major religions in varying proportions. What may be of utmost importance in the Christian faith may be relatively insignificant in Islam or Hinduism.

THE ROLE OF LANGUAGE IN THE STRUCTURE OF BELIEF

Christians believe in the creative power of the Word, the Logos which is both God himself and also the expression of God according to St. John (John 1:1-14). Christians also include the stories of the Tower of Babel, the Pentecost experience and so on in their system of beliefs. These religious concepts are directly related to the role of language.

Similar concepts are found in Islam and Judaism. The role of oral tradition and religious teaching in both Hinduism and Buddhism cannot be overemphasized. Language has a very special part in the structure of belief in most religious systems.

THE FUNCTION OF LANGUAGE IN WORSHIP

Language is accorded an important function in Hindu worship patterns. Various chants and religious formulae essential to some of the Hindu worship forms must be presented in Sanskrit. Other types of Hindu worship, however, do not require language, but action.

Language is especially important in the Christian liturgical tradition. Indeed the question of the language used for communication with God takes on theological significance in some sectors of the Christian church. Verbalized prayer is important to Islam and Judaism, as well as Christianity. The special role of Latin in the Roman Catholic church, of Arabic in Islam, and of Hebrew in Judaism show the importance of language in

religion. Certain vocabulary within these languages is reserved for use in worship but virtually unused in any other context.

LANGUAGE AS AN ORGANIZATION FACTOR IN RELIGION

How does a religious group organize itself in an international or multilingual environment? Language can be a friend or foe in the propagation of a particular belief system. A belief system dependent on a single language can easily become overly regionalized.

The question of revelational purity of the Qur'an is so intense that no "official" translations of the Holy Book are available. On the other hand Christians put such great emphasis on communicating their scriptures that the Bible has been translated into over 1,700 languages.

For example, one Christian group in the U.S.A., the Southern Baptists, are so involved in using languages in the propogation and organization of their faith they have a whole "Language Missions Division." This office deals with organization of churches along language/ethnic identity. In New York City alone the Southern Baptists worship in at least twenty different languages. Churches are organized in the U.S.A. using over seventy-five different languages.

SOME ADDITIONAL ISSUES RELEVANT TO THE TOPIC

Considering linguistic differences in the world today, how does a religious group carry on its task? How can it ensure maximum participation by all believers? How can its leaders or members communicate with each other? How is the worship form or publication of religious literature organized? How can a faith guarantee that all of its adherents are treated equally and fairly? Does linguistic inability to participate in religious practices mean discrimination on linguistic grounds?

How do specific problems in translation of various scriptures and religious literature relate to this complex issue? How does one deal with the possible need for uniformity in religious terminology in different languages?

On a philosophical level, how does the nature of language itself, especially that of religious language, affect religious practice? Usually religious language makes ample use of metaphor. What is the nature of such metaphor? Is it purely and simply metaphorical or does it carry (or is it perceived to carry) some innate "real" force?

Suggestions for contributions to the program, which may be in English, French or Esperanto, should be addressed to Dr. Tonkin at the following address: State University College, Potsdam, New York 13676.

Fourth Annual Conference on Language and Communication

The Fourth Annual Conference on Language and Communication will be held December 13 and 14, 1985, in New York City.

The first day of this two-day conference will be devoted to papers on "Overcoming Language Barriers: The Human/Machine Relationship." Topics covered will include the role of technology in translation and interpretation, language instruction and the establishment of language policy and language planning.

The second day of the conference will be an all-day session on "The Idea of a Universal Language," with papers examining the historical, philosophical, and practical aspects of the idea of a universal language. This session is dedicated to the coming centennial of Esperanto in 1987 and will be the first of three scholarly conferences in various parts of the world planned in commemoration of that event.

The conference is timed to coincide with the presentation of the Zamenhof Award for International Understanding to Mr. Robert Muller, the distinguished writer, thinker and international civil servant, who is Assistant Secretary-General of the United Nations. The Award will be presented to Mr. Muller at a banquet at the Graduate Center of the City University of New York, on the evening of December 13. Special arrangements will be made for conference participants to attend.

/ml
12/05/85

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